The Nation.

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The Week.

THE main cause of the cyclone which has emptied seventy Republican seats in Congress, is the wicked and unprincipled measure which that party devised to pay the campaign debts of Quay and Wanamaker. The cash that was subscribed to elect Harrison was charged up to the American people in a gross, uncounted sum. It was to be collected by duties on tin plate, worsted cloth, carpet wool, pearl buttons, and a thousand other things that enter into the food and raiment of the people. Such a bill could never have been carried except as a cash transaction, so much for so much. The result is now before us. At this writing, the Republican party has lost all of New England except Maine and Vermont. It has lost New York, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Wisconsin, Kansas, and Nebraska, and probably Michigan and Illinois and Montana. It has given the Democrats a greater majority than they ever had in any Congress since the time of Andrew Jackson. This result has come about spontaneously, in the face of imbecility or indifference on the part of the National Democratic Committee.

The lurid appeal with which the Chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, Mr. Belden, closed the late campaign, showed that he expected defeat. The document reads like one of the forged and garbled foreign press extracts with which Belden stuffed his campaign circulars, for it is full from beginning to end of misstatements and obvious falsehoods. The gem of the collection is the following:

> "These were the chief features of their campaign. Supplementary to them, however, was another not less infamous. It was a grand conspiracy to raise the values of all the necessaries of life, and to charge that inflation to the new Republican Tariff Bill. In order to enjoy the spoils of office, they undertook to create a condition of the market whereby the people would be shamelessly swindled out of hundreds of thousands of dollars. This conspiracy has failed. The people have discovered that the new Tariff Law is not going to cause a rise of prices or any business disturbance, and they perceive that it is going to create larger and better markets for *our farmers, to build up many new industries*, to give employment to thousands of workmen now idle or insufficiently occupied, and to maintain the present high rate of American wages."

We doubt if any less experienced person than an ex-Canal-Ring contractor would have ventured upon the public statement, first, that the recent general advance in prices was due to a "Democratic conspiracy," and second, that the conspiracy has failed—that is to say, that prices have not been raised. He goes on to say that the "people have discovered that the new (McKinley) law is not going to cause a rise in prices." Have they, indeed?

The election of William E. Russell as Governor of Massachusetts is a deserved triumph for a worthy candidate after an inspiring campaign. Mr. Russell has every personal qualification to adorn the high office which the Bay State used to reserve for its most distinguished citizens, until the Republicans set the bad example of letting a rich nobody have it in exchange for heavy campaign contributions; and he has won the place after a fair contest in the open field as the champion of reform in State and national administrations alike. His success puts the Democratic party in Massachusetts on a sounder basis than it has occupied before for a generation. It means much more than the victories of Gaston in 1874 and of Butler in 1882, and it will injure the chances of the Republican party in the future more than either of those events. In the last Presidential election before 1874, Massachusetts gave the Republican candidate a plurality of 74,212; in the first Presidential election after 1874, the Republican plurality sank to 41,286. In the last Presidential election before 1882, the Republican plurality was 53,245; in the first Presidential election after 1882, the Republican plurality sank to 24 243. As the Republican plurality in the last Presidential election before 1890 was only 32,037, Mr. Russell's victory this year ought to make Massachusetts a doubtful State in the next Presidential election.

The great explanatory fact of the municipal election in this city is that over 30,000 of those who registered did not vote. That Tammany polled its full vote appears to be certain. It polled the largest vote it has ever had, but only 1,000 more than in 1888. It therefore has plainly owed its victory not to any marked increase in its own strength, but to the abstention of its opponents. Erhardt and Hewitt together cast 145,000 votes against Tammany in 1888. On Tuesday the total anti-Tammany vote only amounted to 94,000. So it still apparently remains true that Tammany is in a decided minority in this city. What was the cause of this enormous number of abstentions? Here we are in the region of pure guesswork. A partial solution of the mystery is the mutual distrust of the Republicans and Democrats. The Republicans could not bear to vote for a Democrat, and the Democrats, feeling the wave of popular hostility roused by Republican performances in Congress, could not bear to inflict on Democrats a defeat of which the Republicans would have got a large share of the credit and profit. Each side, too, suspected the other of unfaithfulness to the combination ticket, and one or the other was undoubtedly right; perhaps both were right in some degree.

To this cause must be added the simple negligence or indifference of probably thousands of well-to-do people. Some did not take the trouble to register, and others who did register, would not, as the day was fine, waste any part of it in voting. This class of abstainers we have always with us. They include the rich, who, to use Mr. W. W. Astor's words in refusing to subscribe to the expenses of the Municipal League, "have no political interests in New York." The meaning of this is, that they find it cheaper and far less troublesome to buy Tammany when Tammany becomes oppressive and annoying, than to fight Tammany in the political arena. If Tammany gets into power, they can always protect themselves against it by drawing a check; whereas, if they oppose it with their vote and influence, and it succeeds in spite of them, they are exposed to its vengeful levies on their property as well as to smaller annoyances. This class has always been friendly to the worst Tammany men, even to the Tweed Ring. The late reform movement may therefore be said to have failed signally to divorce municipal business from politics.

There is one Southern State where there need be no question as to the reason why a small Republican vote is polled. In Virginia, Mahone, who controls the party organization, has openly advised Republicans not to vote. He is himself a resident of the Petersburg district, which elected Venable, a white Democrat, two years ago, only to have Langston, the colored Republican, put in his place. He therefore writes a letter to the County Chairman, in which he says that Langston is not a resident of the State, that he is not the nominee of the Republican party, that he is a disorganizer, that his election would be detrimental to the interests of both parties, and that he hopes he will be defeated. In the Richmond district Mahone's Chairman of the Republican Committee issued an address calling upon the voters of his party not to participate in the election of Congressmen, and saying that on the day of the election his Committee would have a man at each of the polling-places in the district to advise the negroes not to vote. Mahone's object was clear. He was overwhelmingly beaten when he ran for Governor himself a year ago, and he knows that Republican candidates will be beaten so long as he controls the organization and such candidates are recognized as being only his dummies.

Senator Aldrich went to Brookline, Mass., the other day, to make a speech in defence of the McKinley Bill. As usual, he made a lot of very glaring misstatements of fact. Among others he said that the duty on pig-iron had been "constantly decreasing" from 1828 to the present time, and he gave what he called the figures of the different tariffs to show this, as follows:

> "In 1816 the duty on pig-iron was $10; in 1828 it was $12.50; in 1832 and 1833 it was $10; in 1842 it was $9; in 1862 it was $9; in 1864 it was $7, and in this bill it is $6.72 per ton; a constantly decreasing rate of duty."

Mr. Horace P. Tobey, an iron-manufacturer, now addresses a letter to Mr. Aldrich, hauling him over the coals generally, and exposing in particular his falsehood about the duty on pig-iron. We say falsehood with

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deliberation and intent in this case because it is impossible that Mr Aldrich should be ignorant of the real facts, which are these: The duty on pig-iron was first imposed in 1818, the article having been on the free list for one hundred and seventy-six years in our colonial and national life, and having been largely exported by us to Great Britain. The duty in 1818 was fifty cents per cwt., or $10 per ton. The duty of 50 cents per cwt. lasted till 1828, when it was raised to 62½ cents per cwt. Under Clay's compromise tariff of 1832, it was put on the sliding scale at $12.50 per ton. Under the sliding scale it was reduced gradually to 20 per cent. ad valorem. By the tariff of 1842 it was fixed at $10 per ton. By that of 1846 it was 30 per cent. ad valorem. By the tariff of 1857 it was reduced to 24 per cent. The Morrill tariff of 1861 fixed it at $6 per ton, which was raised to $9 in 1864 by way of compensating manufacturers for the internal taxes. In 1870 the duty was reduced to $7, the internal taxes having been repealed. By the tariff of 1883 the duty was reduced a small fraction, to $6.72 per ton, at which rate it stands in the McKinley Bill.

But Mr. Tobey makes the case much plainer by showing what have been the equivalent ad-valorem rates all this time. Of course, as the cost of making pig-iron becomes cheaper the duty levied by the ton becomes greater, and thus it has come about that the present duty, $6.72 per ton, is very nearly the highest in the history of the country. The percentages are as follows:

Date.	Duty on each $100
1816–1827	$40.00
1828–1831	44.44
1832	45.28
1833–1841	50.90
1842–1845	30.00
1846–1856	24.00
1857–1860	40.00
1861–1863	58.70
1864–1869	46.66
1870–1871	18.33
1872–1873	40.58
1874–1882	58.20
1883–1890	

Will Mr. Aldrich ever reply to or notice in any way Mr. Tobey's letter? Probably not.

It is pleasant to learn, on the testimony of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, that the binding-twine manufacturers will be able to "go on" with a protection of only 7-10 cent per pound. So Mr. Lodge said in his speech at Charlestown, Mass., last week. His words are thus reported in the Boston papers:

"We gave the cordage factories free raw material; it is perfectly right and proper that they should have it. Farmers raised a cry that they wanted free binder-twine. The duty we put upon it in the House was stricken off in the Senate. Then petitions commenced to flow in from the men who worked in factories. They didn't go to the Democratic party, they came to the Republican party. They said: Give us a duty on binder-twine that we may not be ruined; and we saved enough for them to go on, I hope."

We are particular to quote what Mr. Lodge said, because it presents such a fine contrast to a statement made by the binding-twine manufacturers in writing to the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Finance while the matter was pending in the House, viz.:

"SIR: The cordage and binder-twine manufacturers of the United States beg that your honorable committee will amend that clause in the Tariff Bill which relates to our business. It places a duty of 1¼ cents per pound upon binder-twine. *Should this become a law, it will close our mills.* We ask for 1¾ cents per pound, an increase of one-half cent."

Directly on the heels of the enactment of a rate of duty more than half a cent lower than they said would "close our mills," they became so cheerful that they offered a large part of their property in the form of preferred stock to the public, and advertised that they were in very prosperous circumstances, and had formed a combination which would insure a continuance of the prosperity. And now Mr. Lodge underwrites them to the extent of believing that they lied when they submitted their written statement to Senator Morrill.

Mr. Henry L. Pierce, one of the ablest and most honorable Representatives Massachusetts Republicans have ever sent to Congress, has been on the stump against his old party. Addressing a large audience on Tuesday week in Boston on the tariff, he made a most effective answer to those who thought the McKinley Bill had either settled the tariff issue, or ought, in the interest of business, to be considered as having settled it. He recalled something which we think has during the past year been running greatly in the minds of reflecting men—the striking parallel between the views and methods of the high-tariff men now and those of the pro-slavery men during the closing years of slavery—the arrogance, the self-confidence, the eagerness to adopt any device, however high-handed, to carry their point; the readiness to believe that every piece of legislation they forced through was a final settlement. He recalled Clay's belief that the compromise measures of 1850 had permanently settled the controversy, and his appeal to the Senate to stop all further discussion; Cass's belief that the slavery question "was settled in the public mind," and that "it was useless to make speeches about it"; Choate's belief that these measures were "a mighty charm," which had "calmed the madness and anxiety of the hour." With these he compared Chase's emphatic deliverance, that the question had been "avoided but not settled," and Hale's passionate exclamation:

"And now gentlemen flatter themselves that they have done a great deed for the peace of the country. . . . There was a time when a set of men cried, Peace, peace, when there was no peace. . . . Gentlemen altogether mistake the character of the people whose sentiments have been violated, whose wishes have been disregarded, and whose interests have been trampled in the dust."

The Baltimore *American*, a sound McKinley paper, recently said (October 28):

"In commerce and mechanics this country is a giant; in art she is an infant. The great works of the great masters of Europe are a part, and an important part, of her artistic education. Competition with them is out of the question. They are a stimulating and needed help to American art. A tariff on them is an obstacle to our own artistic growth."

But we thought the true doctrine was that it was in commerce and mechanics that this country was an "infant." If it be "a giant" in these things, where is the need of protection? Giants do not as a rule need protection when in good health. Why should we all be compelled to subscribe to keep giants on their legs? And how does the *American* know that competition with European art is "out of the question" if aided by a good tariff? True, we have no Rembrandts, or Rubenses, or Millets, or Corots, or Rousseaus; but would not a 30 per cent. duty have produced them before long? We have no tin-plate manufacture in this country now, but is not the high duty sure to produce a great deal of it? We have been informed by an American artist of distinction that there is now a Corot factory over in Hoboken at which you can order Corots by the dozen, and which sells large numbers of them to Western millionaires. Of course they are not yet as good as the French Corots, but they surely would have been before long if the duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem had been left on the French article. Whether we can ever turn out genuine Corots with only the 15 per cent. of protection given by the McKinley Bill, is questionable. We do not believe we can.

In our increasing collection of trade circulars showing advance of prices of goods under the McKinley Bill, we find a rather unique document. A firm engaged in selling fire-arms had sent out a circular advancing prices in consequence of the new tariff. One of their customers replied to the circular that it was "all humbug." "We should like to know," said the indignant buyer, "how the tariff operates to increase the price of guns made in this country?" The letter closed by offering to pay the old prices for guns, but refusing to pay a cent more. Of course, the seller of the guns can only wait and let the buyer see whether he can get them at the old price. He will perhaps find out after a little that Congress did not spend nine months in passing a bill that was "all humbug."

The utter worthlessness of the census of 1890 is demonstrated by the final announcement that the population of the country is only 62,480,540. It is no wonder that Superintendent Porter feels constrained to issue a long and labored attempt at defence of so entirely unexpected and so obviously absurd a result. His chief reliance is the admitted fact that the census of 1870 was untrustworthy, especially in the South, and the consequent claim that nobody ought to be surprised that the rate of growth between 1880 and 1890 has been on the face of the returns only 24.57 per cent., against an apparent gain of 30.08 per cent. between 1870 and 1880. The real test of the census of 1890 is a comparison with the enumerations of 1860 and 1880, both of which are accepted as correct, leaving that of 1870 out of the account. In 1860 the population was 31,443,321 and in 1880, 50,155,783—being a gain of 59.51 per cent. for twenty years, or at the rate of 29.75 per cent. in ten years. The Porter count in 1890 shows only 62,480,540 people—a gain of but 24.57 per cent. in the last ten years. The period from 1860 to 1880 included the era of the civil war, with the consequent loss, directly

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and indirectly, of many hundreds of thousands of human lives; the panic of 1873 and the several years of "hard times" which followed it; and two periods when immigration fell to very small figures, first during the war and then after the panic. Yet, despite all these drawbacks, the growth of population during each of these two decades was at the rate of almost 30 per cent. On the other hand, during the last decade, the number of immigrants reached the immense total of 5,242,530, or nearly twice as many as ever before landed in the same period; the country has been prosperous; there has been a greater advance in sanitary science, and consequently a smaller death-rate, than in any previous ten years; and yet Mr. Porter would have us believe that the growth of population has been far less than during the stormy and disastrous period between 1860 and 1880! It would be a waste of words to argue such a question.

The thing which ought to be done is to confess frankly that the Porter count is absolutely worthless, and have a new census taken by a man in whom the country would have the same confidence that it felt in Gen. Francis A. Walker ten years ago. It is intolerable that a reapportionment of Congressmen and Presidential Electors for the next ten years should be based upon these obviously incorrect figures. Aside from the injustice to States and to parties, it is a disgrace to the national reputation that, in this age of progress in statistical science, the Government should stand by a census which is on its face a fraud. It would, of course, be disagreeable to confess that so bad a blunder had been made, but it is far better to confess the blunder than to commit the crime of sustaining a humbug. If the Porter count is to be accepted, the Federal census of 1890 will have to take its place beside that of 1870 as worthless, and we shall have to wait until 1900 for a trustworthy enumeration of our people.

People who thought that the Constitutional Convention in Mississippi would furnish evidence that the South does not accept the failure of secession and the supremacy of the Federal Constitution, are disappointed. The new instrument contains the explicit declaration that "the right to withdraw from the Federal Union on account of any real or supposed grievances shall never be assumed by this State, nor shall any law be passed in derogation of the paramount allegiance of the citizens of this State to the Government of the United States." A little opposition was manifested when the clause was reported from the Committee, and a substitute was proposed declaring that the State, a "coequal member of an indissoluble Federal Union of indestructible States," would never assume the right to withdraw from that Union, and stopping there; but it was voted down, after Gen. Lee, the officer who carried the order to open fire on Fort Sumter twenty-nine years ago, had told his fellow-delegates that he came out of the war convinced that secession was not only impracticable, but wrong, and that he believed every man who had "toted" a musket for four years in the service of the late Confederacy shared that conviction.

A bill has been introduced in the Vermont Legislature to give taxable women the right to vote in town, village, and fire districts, and the Burlington *Free Press* expresses the opinion of most candid men when it declares that "a refusal to grant this privilege is to argue that taxation without representation is just and right." But it adds that there is one thing which will tell against the bill, and that is the fact that "the women of Vermont, as a whole, to all appearances do not care a fig whether they are given the right of suffrage or not." Although a number of petitions for the measure have been presented in the Legislature, the circulators of such petitions have found the work rather discouraging, not a single woman being found within the limits of one town in the northern part of the State who was willing to give her signature when the place was canvassed a fortnight ago. The *Free Press* concludes that "either the women of Vermont do not want the right to vote, or it is an 'off' year in suffrage circles," and it thinks that "until they give more positive expression to their desires in this direction, the Legislature is not likely to give the subject very serious consideration." It is true everywhere else, as in Vermont, that it is now the women, rather than the men, who need to be converted to woman suffrage.

An amusing illustration of the way in which offices are sought in this country is afforded by a letter published in the *Iowa State Register* from Samuel McNutt, asking to have the address of his paper changed from Maracaibo, Venezuela, to Muscatine, Iowa. It appears that the *Register* came to be sent to Maracaibo because Mr. McNutt was appointed consul there; "but," he says, "after a full survey of my field of operations, my surroundings, and the manner in which I must live (or die) in that torrid and enervating clime, I came to the conclusion that it was best for me to return home and resign, which I have done, and I have requested the department to continue in the consulate Mr. Plumacher, who has held the office twelve years (and has had the yellow fever twice) and is acclimated." In other words, Mr. McNutt sought and secured an office at Maracaibo without knowing anything about the climate, manner of life, or character of the people of Venezuela; and as soon as he learned these fundamental facts, he turned about and came home. What fools the passion for office does make of men!

The women of Baltimore, with some assistance from those of other cities, have raised the $100,000 which the Johns Hopkins University exacted as a condition of the admission of women to the benefits of the new Medical School of the University. The money has been accepted by the Trustees, and when the school is opened, women will have access to it on the same footing as men, provided they have followed the same preliminary medical course, and provided that this preliminary training has been "obtained in some other institution of learning devoted in whole or in part to the education of women, or by private tuition." But no immediate benefit is to be derived from it, because the medical school will not be opened until an endowment amounting to $500,000 has been accumulated for its maintenance. We believe that consummation is not very far off. When it is reached, women will be placed on a better footing as regards medical education than ever before, as the Johns Hopkins Hospital will in its staff and equipment be one of the best in the world.

Balfour has gone to Ireland partly under the sting of John Morley's denunciation of his absenteeism, but in a greater degree, doubtless, under the sting of the Eccles election, to see for himself the state of the country. This, be it remembered, is the first visit of the kind made by a man, a complete stranger by birth and education, to a country which he has for four years been governing arbitrarily, by means of a military force backed by sham courts of justice, hardly distinguishable, either in composition or procedure, from a regimental court-martial. During the whole of these four years he has never hesitated to give the lie, almost in terms, about the condition of Ireland to all statements made even as eye-witnesses by all members of the Opposition, whether English or Irish; relying on the reports made to him by furiously partisan subordinates. It is only at the eleventh hour, in the shadow of an impending general election, that he has roused himself from his aristocratic lethargy sufficiently to go over the ground in person and see who was lying. What he undoubtedly now sees is, that a very considerable portion of the west of Ireland cannot produce rent for a landlord except through a life of abject poverty and degradation on the part of the actual cultivator of the soil. The land question in all these districts really is the question—since one of two, landlord or tenant, has to quit, which it should be; or in other words, whether property in land is of such an absolute nature that a landlord would be justified in depopulating huge tracts of territory if it so pleased him, and would be entitled to the aid of all the public force necessary to enable him to do so. The question is a knotty one, both from the economical and moral point of view. But it would seem, at all events at first blush, as if, inasmuch as the Irish landlords owe their very existence as landlords for two centuries not to the popular sentiment of their countrymen, but to overwhelming physical force furnished from the outside, they ought to be removed by the English Government, and compensated for their ownership out of the English Treasury. It seems very difficult to justify their claim on the Irish taxpayers which Balfour's Land Bill sets up.

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CHEAP OR DEAR?

SECRETARY BLAINE took a hand last week in the family discussion which is in progress in the Republican party as to whether or not it is desirable and patriotic for an American citizen to wish to buy things cheaply. He takes the ground squarely that it is, and in this respect he differs radically from President Harrison, Mr. McKinley, and Mr. Lodge, and both agrees and differs with Speaker Reed. In order to avoid all danger of seeming to misrepresent the leading lights of the party on this question, we will quote the position of each of them in his own words. The President said: "I am one of those uninstructed political economists that have an impression that some things may be too cheap; that I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats." Mr. McKinley goes even further than the President, and says: "'Cheap' and 'nasty' go together. This whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty, for cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country, and that is not the kind our fathers builded. Furthermore, it is not the kind their sons mean to maintain." Mr. Lodge is firmly upon the same ground, saying: "The cry for cheapness is un-American. There is such a thing as too much cheapness."

Speaker Reed occupies a middle ground between these authorities and Mr. Blaine, owing to an unfortunate combination of circumstances. Mr. McKinley very thoughtlessly failed to give the Speaker notice that he was "coming out" against cheapness, in time to prevent the latter from going on the record in favor of it. It happened, therefore, that while he was on his way to help Mr. McKinley in the West, the Speaker stopped at Buffalo, and, on the evening preceding that upon which Mr. McKinley delivered the scathing denunciation of cheapness quoted above, Mr. Reed declared that he "could spend the entire evening in giving the facts showing that articles have been lowered in price by the tariff," and that "it is the protective tariff that tempts our inventors to work at inventing cheaper processes of manufacturing." When he reached Ohio and discovered what Mr. McKinley was saying, the Speaker modified this view into a "straddle," in which he contended, first, that the "question of price is purely relative"; second, that "most of the higher prices said to have been caused by the McKinley tariff do not exist at all"; third, that "two-thirds of the prices that will be raised in the future to take effect by-and-by — perhaps — are in cases where the McKinley Bill has lowered the tariff"; and, fourth, that the effect of a protective tariff is to establish manufacturing, and the effect of establishing manufacturing "has always been, that in the long run you get lower prices." As nearly as we are able to understand the Speaker's position, it is that if the tariff raises prices at all, which he doubts, it is only for a time, and that ultimately it lowers them, or, in other words, conduces to cheapness. Hence, in his view, cheapness is not nasty and un-American, but desirable and patriotic.

Now comes Secretary Blaine, and in a speech at South Bend, Ind., on October 29, declares that for twenty-nine years the protective tariff has been lowering prices so steadily and generally that everything we buy to-day is cheaper than it ever was before. Here is the passage:

> "I undertake to call your attention to the fact that, under the last free-trade tariff, which ended in the beginning of 1861, you were paying more for everything that entered into your living, your household expenses, what you had on your table, and what you had upon your back, than you are paying to-day. Yet the whole country is resounding with the appeals of the Democratic party to vote against the Republican party because of the high prices they are putting on you. We have had protection now for twenty-nine years. Go back, if you please, and consult the old tariff, you younger men (and you older ones will remember it); compare its results with those of the present tariff. Compare them article by article, and you will find that in almost every case they are vastly cheaper now than then. The Democratic party allege that protective duties increase prices. That is their strongest point. I don't stand here to argue theories. I invite your attention to the fact that, during the period of twenty-nine years of protection, the tendency of prices for luxuries and the necessities of this life has been steadily downward."

What does Mr. McKinley say to that? If the "tendency of prices" under twenty-nine years of protection "has been steadily downward," the tariff has been working in the direction of cheapness for all that time, has it not? and has thus been working with infernal persistency towards making this a "cheap and nasty" country, filled with "cheap men and women." The antagonism between Mr. Blaine and Messrs. Harrison, McKinley, and Lodge is direct and irreconcilable. He says the protective tariff has for twenty-nine years worked steadily to give us greater cheapness, and that this is its strongest point; they say it prevents cheapness, and for that reason every true American should thank God for it and call it blessed. In every way, we think, their contention does greater credit to their intelligence and sincerity than Mr. Blaine's does to his. They admit the truth when they say that the tariff does raise prices, and they should have credit for that, whatever may be thought of their estimate of the intelligence of their audiences in adding to the admission their denunciation of cheapness.

But what shall be said of Mr. Blaine's claim that the difference in prices for the luxuries and necessaries of life to-day as compared with those of twenty-nine years ago is all due to protection? If he believes that, what has he to say of the same difference in England, and in fact every other civilized country on the face of the globe? He knows as well as anybody that prices have fallen in England during that period under free trade even more than they have here under protection, and why should he assume that the Western people are so ignorant as not to know it also? He did not even stop at prices, but went on to claim that our increase in population was also due to the tariff. "What have we done for the population of this country?" he asks. "We have considerably more than doubled the population during the twenty-nine years of protection. Now we are a people of nearly 65,000,000. Before we were only 31,000,000. You will find this to be true if you will go through the statistics." It is true, Mr. Porter's lower total by two or three millions to the contrary notwithstanding. It is also true that, during that period, several persons in the country have attained the age of maturity, and are able to reason after the manner of intelligent beings.

THE M'KINLEY ALPHABET.

THE "Democratic conspiracy to advance prices," which forms the refrain of the latest song sung by Chairman Belden at Washington and Chairman Manley at Augusta and by all the other Republican swans, has been exposed and has failed to produce its intended effect—so the whole flock unite in saying. Political conspiracies are no new thing in American politics. Not a year goes by without yielding one or more. But nobody has ever before, we think, hit upon the idea of getting all the merchants in the country to charge more for their goods in order to beguile people of their votes. Nor has any clique or coterie within our recollection been so adroit or agile as to bring the whole mercantile community, from one end of the country to the other, mostly Republicans too, into the toils of the conspiracy, and get them drilled to their parts, within less than thirty days of the time when the plot was first formed. The thing betokens more than human power. It savors of the black art. At all events, it is a fit subject for Bill Nye, or the Society for Psychical Research, to look into, to tell us how such things can be.

Perhaps, however, there has been no such conspiracy. Perhaps the mercantile classes, looking at the McKinley Alphabet as it is printed in the *Evening Post*, or, rather, looking at it before it was printed at all, have perceived that after their present stocks of goods are gone, they cannot be replaced at the old prices, and that they must pay something more per yard, per pound, per gallon, and per cent. on account of the aforesaid Alphabet. As prudent and honest men, they have notified their customers of this plain fact. Such general notifying is what Belden, Manley, and the rest call conspiracy. They would have preferred, of course, that the merchants should make believe that they were going to continue to sell at the old prices—till after the election anyhow. But that would have been a deception amounting to a conspiracy, and would have led to very serious consequences, personal to the merchants themselves. Their customers would have come to them, after the present stocks were used up, and would have expected to buy more at the old prices. But it would have been impossible to supply them at the old prices, the McKinley Alphabet forbidding. The Alphabet was designed expressly to make higher prices; but whatever was designed, that effect could not be avoided. So the merchants were obliged to tell their customers beforehand what was going to happen.

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cy" hath this extent, no more. Prices of stocks on merchants' shelves have not in general been advanced. Merchants in most cases have shared and are still sharing with their customers whatever advantage they have reaped by laying in large stocks before the McKinley embargo took effect. But they are puzzled and worried to know what will happen next. It is very easy to say: "Buy more at the McKinley prices." The question is whether they can sell at any profit, or even get back the bare cost, at the new prices, for the public seem to have formed a conspiracy of their own not to pay the McKinley prices. Almost every buyer in the land has formed a mental resolution that he will not pay a cent more than he did before, and not a few have proclaimed that resolution. Some, echoing Belden, say that it is all a trick and a conspiracy, and they honestly believe so. Others, again, knowing better, say that they will not be imposed upon by the crowd of real conspirators who are behind McKinley, and who put McKinley and Tom Reed and the Republican party up to enacting the McKinley Alphabet.

Between these two kinds of buyers the merchants are having a hard time, and it will be harder yet when they come to make their own next purchases. Heretofore they have had experience to guide them. They have known what and how much the public would buy at a certain price. How much, if any, the public will buy at a higher price is a matter of guess-work altogether. Any man who could answer that question would command a very high salary in any and every counting-room in New York. With the great bulk of consumers it is not a question of willingness, but of sheer necessity. They cannot pay higher prices for the same quantity. They must either buy a less quantity or a poorer quality. The opinion seems to prevail that the latter alternative will be adopted by most people, and that we shall soon enter upon an era of shoddy. Prices "will be higher *next spring* if not before," is the announcement of a leading firm doing business at 302 Broadway, which happens to reach us while we are writing. This tells the exact truth. Prices of store goods have only advanced here and there. They are on the rise, and there is no help for it. The pinch has only begun. It will be a gradually increasing suffocation from now on.

Any words of ours would be superfluous to characterize the McKinley Alphabet. It speaks for itself. Look at the finer grades of steel, for example—an article necessary to support many important industries here. Think of a tax of seven cents a pound on steel. Yet that is a small matter in comparison with the tax on pearl buttons, which are necessary to other important industries. Think of a tax of $6,000 on $1,200 worth of buttons. Think, also, of a tax of 32 and 64 per cent. on the wool of which all our carpets are made, but which is not produced in this country at all. What is the use of a tax on leaf tobacco of $2.75 per pound, or of 30 cents per bushel on barley, or of 5 cents per dozen on eggs? In some places there is method in this madness, as where the tax on fishermen's seines was doubled for the benefit of manufacturers of linen twine. In others there is none. Why, for example, should the tax on microscopes be advanced to 60 per cent.? Who is interested in having amber necklaces for babies taken from the free list and taxed 50 per cent. ad valorem? Who wants to have the duty on truffles raised from 30 to 45 per cent.? Is the amber business an "infant industry" in a double sense? Does anybody propose to hunt for truffles in this country? Does anybody expect to produce the natural mineral waters of Europe here? What sort of swindling is covered up by such items as these?

As we have said, the McKinley Alphabet as published by the *Evening Post* is only a part, really a small part, of the whole. There are large classes of goods embraced under general headings of which the *Evening Post* mentions only a single one. The public will find them out, however, before six months more shall have passed over their heads.

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

About a year ago there was more or less newspaper mention of a proposed memorial enterprise which was to signalize, in a much more permanent way than can be done by a World's Fair, the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. The scheme had its origin in a suggestion made at last year's meeting of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, and there received with great favor; and it contemplated nothing less important than a memorial history of American literature and science from the discovery of America to the present time. More accurately, two prizes of $3,000 each were to be offered for the best general survey of American literature and science respectively; and in addition to this it was proposed to secure the preparation of an extensive and detailed account of scientific achievement, the work for each department of science to be intrusted to a specialist in that department. It is plain that this last undertaking was the really serious task, and the only part of the scheme which possessed in a high degree the monumental character.

We are informed that a committee having the project in charge is about to meet and confer upon the initiation of the work. The committee consists of the presidents of some six of our greatest universities, together with one or two other gentlemen of equal eminence; and doubtless every point of importance will receive the most careful and mature consideration before any active steps are taken in the work. Yet we think that a few general remarks on some of the dangers that may beset the undertaking, will not be wholly impertinent.

In the first place, then, it must be borne in mind that it is practically impossible—even if it were desirable—for the historian of scientific production to avoid giving an estimate, either explicitly or by implication, of the value and importance of the work whose achievement he is recording. It will consequently be a primary requirement, if the memorial history is not to reflect discredit upon the country, that the men engaged to write each section of the history be men who naturally use a cosmopolitan and not a provincial standard, and who feel that their task is to measure truly the importance to the progress of science of the work under review, and not to praise good intentions or to eulogize perseverance in the face of difficulties, or to indulge in vague generalities about the excellence of work whose chief recommendation may be that it is the product of "native industry." There is many a piece of excellent work which America can show, and which will bear the application of the highest standards; such work ought to stand out in bold relief, and not be made indistinguishable from unimportant and mediocre work by that indulgence in universal laudation which writers upon American achievement in literature and science often so easily and good-naturedly fall into.

There is, of course, little danger that such a committee as that which will have charge of this undertaking will choose for any worker upon it a man who is capable of the grosser forms of puffing. But this is a process which takes on many different shapes, and often it is carried on quite unconsciously. So extreme a case as that presented by a recent magazine article on "The Private School for Girls" is seldom encountered; it is truly surprising that an article containing so much of vulgar self-laudation and so little of anything else should have found admission into a high-class magazine. In connection with this performance, we are reminded of an encyclopædia article upon Logic, in which the work of an obscure text-book-maker was given but little less prominence than that of Aristotle; it was not surprising to find, upon referring to an index of contributors, that the author of the text-book was identical with that of the article.

In addition to the temptations to undiscriminating praise which are common to undertakings of this general character, there are two circumstances, somewhat peculiar to the subject of the history of science in America, which deserve to be specially mentioned. The first arises from the very great differences that exist between the amount of achievement in different fields. If, as will necessarily be the case, the work in the various subjects be assigned to specialists in those subjects, there will be danger of each writer feeling that he is expected to make a showing comparable in dignity and amount to that of his colleagues. But no such democratic equality exists in the premises. There are some subjects in which America has done work which, for quantity at least, and in some instances for quality also, holds high rank among the contributions of the great nations of the world. This is certainly true of some departments of the natural-history sciences and of astronomy. But there are other subjects in which American work has been almost absolutely *nil*. In pure mathematics, for instance, we believe it can be said with entire accuracy that the

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only really notable contribution made by an American to the science is the memoir on Linear Associative Algebra of the late Benjamin Peirce; and, what will be more surprising to most readers, it would be only a very trifling inaccuracy to call that memoir the only American contribution of any kind to pure mathematics, notable or not notable, prior to 1876. The historian of mathematics in this country must quietly bow to facts, and make his history no longer than those facts warrant, unless he wishes to make his work ridiculous by padding it with detailed accounts of the origin and progress of divers series of text-books.

The second circumstance to which we have referred is one which will call for the exercise of unusual tact and judgment. In several departments of research, nearly all the advanced work that has been done in America has been done not only by men who are still living, but by men who are still young, and the permanent value of whose work has not yet been securely determined. The delicacy of the task of treating historically the work of living men is always recognized, and in many collective works leads to the entire omission of the names of living men. This is, of course, out of the question in a history of science in our day, on account of the immense progress made during the present generation; and least of all is it possible in America, where so many branches of inquiry had been left almost uncultivated until within the last two decades. But it will present a strange appearance if the history of some department of research, after a few preliminary remarks and the mention of two or three older names, shall proceed at once to a review of the work of men who, ten or fifteen years ago, were students in American or foreign universities. It will require skill here to avoid the appearance of puffery where there is none. And, on the other hand, it will not do to accept as final the enthusiastic appreciation which the work of some of our young and promising savants is receiving. Much that the present generation values, and justly values, may prove in the next to have been important chiefly as a sign of life and work. To take perhaps the most striking example of all this: the contrast presented by the vigorous activity of so many able young men in the field of economic theory and economic discussion, to the almost utter neglect of the subject which prevailed so long in America, is most gratifying; but what a journalist may heartily welcome and praise, an historian must remember has yet to be subjected to the inexorable ordeal of time.

In all these remarks we have been looking at only one side of the matter, and that because it seemed to us of urgent importance. Nothing that we have said was meant to be inconsistent with the most jealous preservation of the record of the humble beginnings of things; with the most generous recognition of useful work of every kind; with the greatest pride in all that our country has achieved in any direction. But we have wished to show that that pride cannot be satisfied with a record in which values are inflated so as to make honest comparison with other nations impossible, or so as to reduce, in our own country, important achievement and humdrum reproduction to a common level.

CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES IN CHILI.

MR. THEODORE CHILD'S latest Chilian article in *Harper's* predicted a struggle between President Balmaceda and the Congress; and the rather vague despatch recently given out by the Department of State at Washington refers to the closing of the preliminary stage of the conflict. To make matters clearer, a more detailed review of the progress of events is necessary.

As Mr. Child remarks, the President of Chili, in common with most of the Executives of Spanish-American republics, has long been a practical dictator. Invested with centralized powers worked out into the most extraordinary minutiæ, he has been able not only to control the course of legislation in the most absolute way, but also to dictate the Presidential succession and to manipulate the entire electoral system. Popular disgust at this state of things had long been growing more and more intense, and it was evident at the opening of Congress, on June 1, that an attempt would be made to deprive the Presidency of a part of its swollen power. The President foresaw the coming storm, and endeavored to divert it. In his message to Congress he shrewdly threw himself, or appeared to throw himself, on the side of the popular agitation, and urgently recommended reforms in the Constitution of 1833, for the purpose of securing a greater degree of home rule to provinces and municipalities, and of more clearly defining the respective powers of the three coördinate branches of the general Government. He admitted that too much weight was assigned to the President by the Constitution, though he maintained that the remarkable stability and domestic peace of the country for the past thirty years had been largely due to a strongly centralized Government.

"However, "men and institutions have their day," he went on, "and to-day we need to have other conditions prevail in our public life. But these were not to be found," he argued, "in the parliamentary régime so widely advocated." The President ought to be freed from some of his responsibilities, but the essential prerogatives of his office should not be touched; he must remain independent of the Legislature, must retain the veto power, and keep the control of all public officers having to do with general, as distinct from local, interests. "For my part," he said, "I do not accept for my country either the dictatorship of Congress or the dictatorship of the Executive; I desire a system of liberty and of independent public powers." He proceeded to give a sketch of his idea of the proper division of powers between the Executive, Legislative, and Judicial departments of the Government, and exhorted Congress to promote constitutional changes in that direction.

The Congress's first point of attack was the President's Cabinet. A resolution was duly passed calling upon the Ministry to resign, and asking the President to appoint a Cabinet acceptable to the two Chambers. The President delayed his reply, but promptly struck a blow at his opponents by getting the Council of State to enforce the laws restricting the right of assemblage; this was done to head off the great popular meetings in opposition to the President. Nevertheless, he approved the new election law passed by both houses, designed though it openly was to free the elections from the Presidential control. Then ensued a period of discord, the President stubbornly maintaining his position, and the Congress resorting to the most desperate expedients to compel him to form a new Ministry. The Chambers refused to vote the budget, and allowed a new fiscal year to be entered upon with no laws of taxation in force. On July 18, the Senate passed a bill calling for a constitutional amendment which provided that Congress could be convoked without the assent of the President, that nominations to office should be submitted to the approval of the Senate, and that the Cabinet should resign whenever a majority of the two houses, or two-thirds of one of them, should demand it. The same day a resolution was introduced in the lower house calling for a reform in the Constitution to deprive the President of the veto power.

For a long time the President stood firm, in public manifestoes and in messages to the Congress asserting his intention to maintain all his Constitutional rights. But at last the pressure grew too strong for him. He first yielded in the matter of public meetings, saying that they could be held provided they were not attended with disturbances of the public peace. Then he made advances to the Committee on Finance, so as to get the machinery of taxation at work. Finally, he told a delegation of the leading citizens of Santiago that he would do everything possible to bring the crisis to an end. This was taken to be the beginning of a surrender, and the whole of it was effected early in August by the appointment of an entirely new Cabinet. On the 11th, the new Ministers appeared before Congress, where they were received with tumultuous delight, to read their programme of action. This made a very favorable impression, and everybody was happy—except the President.

All was clear sailing for his opponents after that. They pressed their constitutional reforms forward with rapidity, and these, when consummated, as it seems probable that they will be, will greatly restrict the Presidential privilege. They passed a most important law conferring autonomy upon municipalities. The President made his last stand on the question of surrendering his control over the police of the cities, but was able to get only grudging concessions in the cases of Santiago and Valparaiso; in those cities he is to have a restricted right to name the police superintendents. As a whole he has been thoroughly beaten, and it only remains to be

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seen whether the approaching elections will endorse this first bold experiment in parliamentary government.

EDUCATION IN COLONIAL VIRGINIA.

BROOKLYN, October 13, 1890.

EDUCATIONAL matters in colonial Virginia have offered no little perplexity to the historian and biographer. The product was there, for the number of educated Virginians was large as compared with such persons in other colonies; but the machinery appeared to be wanting, and in a country peopled with men of high culture (for that time) and of great political knowledge and experience, the educational factor can hardly be traced. It may be that the real culture of the Virginian was overrated, and the prominent part taken by that colony and State during and after the Revolution was in part factitious, due to pressing emergencies that brought them to the front. The fact remains, however, that the list of Revolutionary leaders in Congress and in State politics from 1765 to 1799 would be very much lessened in number and importance were the Virginians to be stricken from it.

The question of the source of the really great influence they exerted naturally leads to a study of the opportunities of obtaining an education in the colony, with the result rather of increasing than of diminishing one's surprise at meeting such a galaxy of apparently exotic talent. Of system there was none, though Mr. Gordon McCabe shows that the laws of the colony provided for schools—laws that read well, but failed to be executed. The parson eked out a scanty subsistence by teaching a parish school, where the attendant who took a full course would learn the three R's, with a little Latin and Greek. In some counties might be found a "field-school," almost as primitive in build and conduct as that of the Irish "hedge professor." A college—that of William and Mary—was the local pride, but it dragged out a precarious existence, and, just before the Revolution, was not an institution to which a careful parent would intrust the education of his son. "There so little attention is paid to the learning or the morals of boys," wrote Richard Henry Lee to his brother, "that I never could bring myself to think of William and Mary" for his own son. Nor could Washington, after making inquiries on the spot concerning the reported mismanagement of the college, make up his mind to send his step-son, Custis, to that institution. The same apathy seems to have settled upon the colonial college as infected the English university, where, as Adam Smith records, the greater part of the professors had given up even the pretence of teaching.

Unfortunately, the "parsons' schools" were no better places, either for residence or for study. The parson was very often more distinguished for his capacity for drinking, swearing, fox-hunting, and entertaining than for his fitness as a spiritual guide or monitor, or as an instructor of youth. The reports of the commissaries who at irregular intervals went from parish to parish to look into church affairs, make sad reading; but it is rather to be wondered that matters were no worse. The charge of a parish was regarded as an office at the gift of the Governor, or the Proprietor (in Maryland): so it was a reward for a "friend," a follower, or hanger-on—one who had failed in England, and failed so thoroughly as to welcome an offer in the colonies, because every other door for employment was shut on him. The "taking of orders" was a form which their conscience did not prevent their duly fulfilling, and the care of the parish was an inconvenience to be shirked as much as was possible, but a convenience as a means of support.

These "parsons" contained some good material, and have handed down a reputation through the reputation of their pupils. Jefferson remembered the "mouldy pies and excellent instruction" of a Scotch clergyman from whom he received the rudiments of Latin, Greek, and French. Madison has recorded his gratitude to another Scotch minister, Donald Robertson, a "learned teacher of King and Queen County." In Westmoreland, John Marshall and James Monroe were said to have sat under the Rev. Archibald Campbell—another Scotchman, for it was the Scotch who monopolized the schools of the colony almost as they monopolized the tobacco trade. Dr. Buchan, who set up a school in Dumfries in 1763, had served as tutor in Lord Fairfax's family. Parson O'Neil, in Orange County, was a "better teacher than preacher," and the Rev. John Cameron was minister in Lunenburg County, where he also kept a classical school of some reputation. The Rev. Devereux Jarratt was content to teach a "plain school," at a salary of about ten pounds Virginia—or say $33 a year. One name interrupts the roll of North Britons, and brings with it a memory which no breath of scandal has dimmed — James Maury, of French descent, a Huguenot refugee, whose lovable nature, generous disposition, and high intelligence commanded the respect and warm friendship of all who knew him, and exerted a strong influence upon those who were under his care.

It was at home that the beginnings of an education were laid, and in many ways Arthur Lee was permitted to run, until an advanced period of boyhood, with his father's slaves—a custom of that time, says his biographer, with respect to the younger sons of a family. Washington is said to have received his first knowledge from one of his father's servants or tenants; and Archibald Alexander from an indentured servant. To obtain a tutor from England or Scotland was a common practice, and a salary of £30 sterling a year was considered a fair remuneration. The Custis children had such a tutor, and many others could be named as having the same. This was the extent of home schooling; outside of that were the parish schools, the colleges, and an English experience. The wages of a tutor seem a small sum, and the school rates were no higher. Boucher charged for tuition £25 a year, the boy to furnish his own bed. Custis had two horses and a negro with him, which increased the expense much. At King's College the annual tuition fee was only £5; a room cost £4, and board 11s. a week; firewood, candles, and washing extra. Richard Henry Lee thought £100 a year the usual cost at one of the colleges in the colonies north of Virginia, and his own experience convinced him that an education was much more cheaply obtained in England than in any part of America—William and Mary excepted. At such a school as St. Bees, about £20 a year would cover all the expenses for board, tuition, etc., the course of studies giving "a thorough knowledge of English and the classics, with writing and arithmetic." In his three years at Edinburgh, Arthur Lee spent £419, "which might have been less, had my disposition been less careless."

The unpublished letters of Jonathan Boucher, M.A., throw much light upon this question. The man himself was interesting. Imported as a tutor into a Virginia family, he performed what was expected of him, and, after finishing that task, he was by mere chance led into the ministry. He exercised his new calling in Virginia and Maryland, and, to obtain some means above his meagre salary (for clergymen were wretchedly paid, and, in most cases, were not even worth what they got), he took in some scholars, among whom was "Jacky" Custis, the step-son of Washington. At the outbreak of the Revolution Boucher was a pronounced Tory; suffered hardly for his political tenets, which he literally proclaimed from the housetops; was driven from the country by the "good people" thereof; went to England, and took it out of his persecutors by compiling an autobiography, of which some portions have been printed. Enough is known of the man to recognize a distinct literary faculty. He could as readily frame a bill or a petition for the Legislature as turn off some verses on the meanest of subjects, and he was one of the leading lights of the Homony Club in Maryland, the sole object of which was to "promote innocent mirth and ingenious humor." This is probably the "Philosophical Society" which, according to the London *Chronicle* (1773), had been established in Maryland, and of which Lord Dunmore was said to be the patron.

The opinions of Boucher are, as a rule, very just and reliable, and the picture he gives of schooling opportunities in Virginia does not redound to the credit of that community. Natural causes were in a measure responsible for this, as the life of a Virginian was one practically isolated from the outer world. As Boucher inquired:

> "Where will you point out to me another [country] so circumscribed in its intercourse with mankind at large as Virginia? Saving here and there a needy emigrant from Great Britain, an illiterate captain of a ship, or a subaltern merchant, to whom can a Virginia youth apply for a specimen of the manners, etc., of any other people? Thus limited in the opportunity for observation, must not his ideas necessarily resemble those of a Caribbee Indian mentioned by Lafitau, who, offended at being called a savage, exclaimed, *I know no savages but the Europeans, who adopt none of our customs;* or those of the inhabitants of the Marian Islands, who, being persuaded that theirs was the only language in the universe, concluded from thence that all other men knew not how to speak?"

It followed that to the Virginian his own land was the best, his own habits and practices models, and his countrymen the finest possible. And yet, as Boucher very truly says, "Till very lately you could hardly anywhere see a piece of land tolerably ploughed, or a person who could be persuaded that ploughing made any difference"—a very severe arraignment of a strictly agricultural colony.

Boucher was settled at Port Royal, and wrote of his neighbors: "There was not a literary man, for aught I could find, nearer than the country I had just left; nor were literary attainments, beyond merely reading or writing, at all in vogue or repute. In such society it was little likely I should add to my own little stock of learning; in fact, there were no longer any inducements." While on the glebe of St. Mary's his position was no better; and, after seven years of occupancy, during which he took scholars, he admitted to Washington that he could not boast of having brought out one scholar. The office of teacher was regarded as low, and "often taken up by the very lowest fellows one knows of." Perhaps the Dominie's ire was excited by the large and increasing number of sectaries around him, much occupied in schooling the young. Jefferson noted that a majority of the inhabitants at the beginning of the Revolution were dissenters from the Established Church, while Dr. Myles Cooper described the offence

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given by King's (now Columbia) College, by the fact of its being in the hands of churchmen —that is, of the Established Church. None the less the Virginian clergyman was of very dubious character, subsisting on the scanty product of his glebe, on the fluctuating pay levied and paid in tobacco, and without books for improvement, or companionship to spur him to effort.

With such educational facilities for the planters, it is almost needless to say that the poorer people were destitute of any, unless one of their powerful neighbors should take sufficient interest in the youth to bear the expenses of a schooling—a not unusual occurrence with the sons of a favored overseer. No one who has not consulted the manuscript sources of Revolutionary history can realize fully the intense labor which most of these people underwent when recording their signatures. The cross, or other merely conventional sign, was not much used, and slowly and painfully the letters were evolved, the writer evidently being more apt with hoe or rifle than with the quill. "Old Put," as Washington called the New England hero, was accurate when compared with these scribblers, but he was much worse than Artemas Ward. To sum up, the man in Virginia who wished an education, had to go far from the colony to receive it, and, with a constant intercourse with England, it is little wonder that he should, as a rule, go to English schools and universities—a not unimportant factor in judging of the social system of the colony.

The Revolution did not improve matters, save only by sweeping away what few schools there were, and so necessitating the introduction of a new system. From a MS. journal of Noah Webster, written in 1785, when he was in the South and in the full fever of his educational crusade, are recorded some facts that came under his observation. "Gentlemen are obliged to send their children to the northward for education, a shame to Virginia." A magistrate from the Eastern Shore told him that few of those who acknowledged papers before him could write their names—a curious statement when the high renown of that section even in aristocratic Virginia is considered. A merchant of Alexandria informed him that of fifty planters who sold him tobacco, all but four or five used a mark on the receipts. This is a good proof of the social revolution in the State caused by the war, and especially by the currency experiences. The man who could not read or write, but was shrewd and conscienceless enough to pay his debts in paper at the rate of one shilling in the pound, soon obtained the lands of his more honest neighbors, and, at the end of the war, was in full possession.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

LETTERS AND SPORTS IN SCOTLAND.

EDINBURGH, October 21, 1890.

I SAT for an hour to-day with David Douglas, the publisher, in his office at No. 10 Castle Street. I mention the house particularly because it was the one to which Scott, when he was married, brought his wife. The office, which was their dining-room, was hardly altered, except that a new grate had been put beneath the mantel; but the broad desk of Mr. Douglas stood in the place of the hospitable board of the young housekeepers. In the back room of the first street-floor, where the publisher's clerks were to-day entering items on the invoices as the porters packed the boxes, the original carved mantel reminded me of the style that prevailed in our better New England houses a hundred years ago, which was just about the time that this house at No. 10 was built.

I found Mr. Douglas busily poring over the original MS. diary of Scott, kept in his later years. It was in two quarto parchment-bound volumes, fastened with clasps, and has been preserved at Abbotsford, and was now in Mr. Douglas's hands for publication. The pages looked fair, with scarcely an erasure, though a closer look disclosed the absence of crosses to the *t's* and dots to the *i's*, which everybody knows, from facsimiles of his script found in Lockhart's Life, was the habit of Scott in his ordinary writing. Lockhart cited something short of one-half of this diary, and Mr. Douglas, who has compared it throughout with the text in the Life, says that Lockhart's use of it was absolutely exact and impartial. It is now to be published entire, and Mr. Douglas, who has abundantly edited it, has also had the assistance of Prof. David Masson and other friends. It will not be published here till November 10, in order to secure a simultaneous publication in New York, to which American centre a large edition has already been sent. It is stereotyped, and the indications are that the sale will be considerable, since the first edition is already bespoken.

Notwithstanding the apparent legibleness of the writing, a little reading of it made it evident that it was necessary to have both skill and patience in deciphering it. There were certain words which had not, after long pondering, been satisfactorily determined by different experts, and Mr. Douglas tried my efforts on some of them. I feel confident that the work of transcription for the press has been carefully done, and that we shall have at last this tender, self-examining, discursive and striking record of Scott's personal traits in a publication which will be helpful to all students of that noble soul and the literature he created.

"Come in and talk with me again," said the kind old gentleman. "I shall always tell you when I am busy. I want to tell you what you ought to see while you are here. By the way, have you been at No. 39?" This was the "Cabin," as Scott called his town house in Castle Street, which, when the crash came, he surrendered to his creditors. "No," said I. "I see it is now occupied by lawyers' offices. They are busy men, and I did not feel like intruding. I have contented myself with a glance at the bust of Scott, which they have considerately placed back of the glass above the door." "Come with me," he said, and, taking his hat, he led me the short distance up the street to No. 39. A porter ushered us into the back room on the ground floor, which Scott used as his workroom. It bore much the same aspect as in Scott's day, except that the middle of the room was filled with a mahogany table littered with a lawyer's papers, instead of that at which Scott so long sat, filling his sheets and laying them over in a pile, as those who watched him from adjacent windows saw him doing into the night's still hours. The large window which gave him light had still the peculiar machinery, of Scott's own devising, by which he fastened with a key the sash at any height he desired; for the novelist carefully regulated, it seems, his supply of air to the exigencies of his brain.

I have inquired at several of the booksellers' concerning the sale now attending some of our chief American poets. I find Whittier is the only one gaining in the popular estimation. They tell me that the appreciation of him came slowly, but is now growing daily more and more marked, while Longfellow (as well as Tennyson, and more particularly Browning) is steadily diminishing—or perhaps it would be best to say, in regard to Longfellow, is not increasing. Still, I find Longfellow among the portraits exposed for sale in all the shops, and in one window on Princes Street he shares the place of honor with Scott and Burns. I do not recollect to have seen a single likeness, however, of Whittier.

It is significant of the way in which our American purchasers of Americana are watching the catalogues of dealers, here and in England, that I have almost never in the provincial towns found anything in their stocks of much importance from its rarity. Everything, they say, is caught at as soon as their lists reach America, and generally through the medium of their advance sheets, which go to prominent collectors. I found, however, at one shop, something I was glad to see. It will be remembered that Falmouth, as Portland in Maine was then called, was burned in the early days of the Revolutionary War by an English cruiser, under the command of one Capt. Mowatt, who continued for some time to cruise on our New England coast, under the orders of Sir George Collier, a successor of Admiral Graves in this part of the American station. The Mowatts, it seems, are a Shetland race, and when some of the family papers were not long since sold, and were bought for the chance they might afford of throwing light on the rent rolls and prices of past days in those islands, there was found among them the manuscript which fell under my eye. It was a memorial written by this Capt. Mowatt, detailing his services on the American coast all through the war, and particularly his participancy in the luckless—for us—Penobscot campaign of 1779. This document had been intended for presentation to the Lords of the Admiralty, in order to counteract the injustice which, it was claimed, Sir George had shown towards a faithful officer in not presenting his name for promotion. The manuscript is of interest, and will add something to our knowledge of those episodes of our Revolutionary War. This is the only thing which I have found, in looking over the stocks of a dozen book-dealers in Edinburgh, that was of any importance to an American historical student.

I find that the athletic craze and canker is working the same detriment here in the University, and in such lesser institutions as Fettis College, that it is in our American colleges. I hear the same stories as with us of young men being ostracized who think more of their fitting duties than of a running match, and who begrudge the time necessary to convert a healthful pastime into an exhibition of useless skill. A close observer said to me, "If you want to see how the intellect can be degraded, you have only to glance at a group of cricketers in the photographs, and you see it in their faces." Another tells me the same story that I have so often heard at home, that over-exercise defeats its end, and the young athlete, so boastful in his college days, goes off in the end in consumption or in some other outcome of disproportioned labor. Golf, an old Scottish game, seems to be doing the mischief that base-ball does with us, and I am told that hundreds are now daily playing it on the Links, where scores were seen but a few years ago. It has become so dangerous to passers in that region that there has been a clamor for its prohibition, and the Corporation of Edinburgh has only dared to take that step of safety by first buying a tract of land farther out, where it can be played with less hazard.

The adoration of misused games throughout

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Britain is beginning seriously to attract the attention of those who resist their fascinations, and they are beginning to count the loss in energy and morals which everywhere follows. At a church congress the other day, one of its members even asked the Archbishop of York, or some other dignitary—I forget whom—to intercede with the Prince of Wales to abstain from countenancing the race-course, in the interest of religion. He disturbed a good deal the sporting vicars, not to say bishops, and I do not think the one appealed to felt, by what he said, that it would avail much if he took his Royal Highness to task. That the Congress listened patiently to the arraignment is not, however, without some significance. When I remembered that some weeks ago I wandered about York for an hour after dark to get a place to lay my head, and all because the absorbing interest in the St. Leger at Doncaster had filled up all the abiding-places for fifty miles around, I could but feel, with some intensity from my misfortune, that there might have been a nobler occasion for the poor traveller's unrest. JUSTIN WINSOR.

GONCOURT IN THE SIEGE OF PARIS.

PARIS, October 17, 1890.

WITH all their defects, their affectations, the Goncourts can always be read. They are often irritating, they have a fatiguing morbidity in their style, but their observation is often interesting; it is minute, and made with a certain sort of consciousness which might be compared to the consciousness of the naturalist. They are among the precursors of our naturalist school, but their naturalism is tempered by a curious sort of grace, which they have, I suppose, borrowed from the authors and artists of the eighteenth century, of whom they have made an elaborate study, and with whom they have lived, so to speak, as much as with the men and women of their own time.

The new volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt,' which has just appeared, is peculiarly interesting, but extremely painful. It is the portion kept during the year 1870, which Victor Hugo baptized as "L'Année Terrible," the year of the Franco-Prussian war. It begins on the 26th of June, six days after the death of Edmond de Goncourt at Bar-sur-Seine. The twin brothers had always had but one soul; they had not left each other for a day; they followed each other as the shadow follows the body—and now Jules was alone. Nevertheless, he still calls his Journal the 'Journal des Goncourt'; his brother still lives in him.

Jules goes back to Paris, arriving there at the moment of the declaration of war on Prussia. Some days later—

"At the Bourse, I see nothing but bare heads, hats off, and from every mouth is heard a formidable Marseillaise. I have never seen such enthusiasm. I walk among men pale with emotion, bounding children, women with intoxicated gestures. Capoul sings the Marseillaise, on the Place de la Bourse, from the top of an omnibus; on the boulevard Marie Sass sings it, standing in her carriage, which the people, in their delirium, almost lift up bodily. But what about the despatch which announces the defeat of the Crown Prince of Prussia, the capture of 25,000 prisoners, the despatch which is placarded! I am told inside the Bourse of this despatch, which so many people declare to me they have seen. I look for it; people think they see it, they point to it. 'Look here, there it is, there it is!' and they show me a wall on which there is nothing. This despatch I cannot discover, and I look in vain for it in every corner of the Bourse."

This was written on the 4th of August. Alas! on the 21st of August Goncourt walks in the Bois de Boulogne and sees the first preparations made for the siege of Paris: the great trees fall beneath the axe, all along the fortifications, "with the tottering of men wounded unto death."

It is curious to see how, in the midst of the most tragical scenes, men find it difficult to forget themselves. One day, on the 27th of August, Zola comes to breakfast with Goncourt.

"He talks to me of a series of novels he is going to undertake, of an epopee in ten volumes, the natural and social history of a family, which he has the ambition to write, with the exposition of the characters, the vices, the virtues, developed in the *milieu*, and made different by it, like the various parts of a garden—'here shines the sun, here is the shade.' He tells me that, after the analysis of the infinitesimal of sentiment, such as was executed by Flaubert in 'Madame Bovary,' after the analysis of things artistic, plastic, and nervous, such as you, the Goncourts, have made—after these jewels in writing, these chiselled volumes, there is no place left for young writers, nothing more to do, no personage, no figure to construct; it is only by the quantity of volumes, the power of creation, that it is possible to speak to the public."

Zola has fulfilled his programme. He has astonished us by the quantity of his production; but are you not surprised at the *quantity* of his flattery? When I read these lines I remembered the words of an old Russian diplomat to a young one: "Flatter always, but never delicately."

Here and there in the Journal, very often indeed, we fall on a pretty description, a photograph in words; indeed, we find them almost at every page. What a field was Paris, in those extraordinary days of the siege! Goncourt sees everything; he describes all he sees—the flocks of sheep and oxen coming to the capital, the peasants who take refuge there, the camps of the soldiers in the open air. The 4th of September comes, and the Republic is proclaimed. Goncourt's Diary is not a political pamphlet; it is a succession of impressions, of sensations. At the end of the volume there is an alphabetical table of the names mentioned in the volume. Those which recur the most often are those of Berthelot, the chemist; of Burty, an amateur artist; of Théophile Gautier; of Nefftzer, a journalist, the founder of the *Temps;* of Renan; of Paul de Saint-Victor, a critic of art. Goncourt, Renan, Berthelot, Nefftzer, and a few others dined together every fortnight. Goncourt gives a curious account of the conversations at each of these dinners. It must be said that all the guests seem to have suffered more or less from siege fever, and to have lost their mental balance. These periodical dinners, with their free and rambling conversations, reported accurately by Goncourt, are a sort of thermometer of the Parisian mind during the siege of Paris.

Renan was much more agitated than you would suppose he could possibly be when you see his calm and clerical face. He was Biblical, apocalyptic; he was all the time predicting all the horrors of the siege of Jerusalem. The horrors of the Commune after the siege justified him in this respect. He often scandalized his friends by sudden apologies for Germany and denunciations of France. Just as in a great landscape the eye is forcibly drawn towards certain points, I confess having read with peculiar interest the accounts of these dinners, these "banquets des Girondins." If such men as Renan and Berthelot, men of culture and of science, lost their heads, it is no wonder if the Parisian population often went mad. Renan was always complaining of the "mollesse" of the Parisians and of their defence; so did those who prepared the Commune during the whole siege.

A remark which Goncourt makes is on the contrast between the "mollesse" of the battalion of the National Guard of Belleville and Montmartre, always unwilling to go to the fortifications and to run the chance of a battle with the Prussians, and the undoubted bravery and determination of the same battalions when they fought for the Commune and under the red flag. He explains the contrast by a diminution of patriotism in the working classes and a corresponding increase of internationalism. The capitalist, the Versaillais, was to the Socialist soldiery a worse enemy than the Prussians. The explanation is only partly true. The Socialists were afraid to meet the Prussians, because they knew and felt that they would surely be beaten, that they had before them a victorious, well-organized, well-disciplined, and well-led army. At the beginning of the Commune they had before them only a runaway President, a Chamber which hardly knew itself, and a few regiments coming from the German prisons, discouraged by defeat and by months of suffering. They felt sure that victory was in their hands; they remained the uncontested masters of Paris, and they were on the point of taking Versailles. If it had not been for the bravery of a few gendarmes, of the police, of the skeleton regiments which were reformed at Versailles, they would have been, for a while at least, the masters of France. In the war with the Versaillais they had to fight for their lives, and some of them fought well.

The daily account of the sensations of Goncourt during the Commune is perhaps even more interesting than his account of the siege by the Prussians. One wonders how a man who has such a keen faculty of observation, such a sensibility, such a capacity for suffering, could have gone through the dreadful period of the two sieges, especially as the war found him in the slough of despond after the loss of his beloved brother. I have read nothing that brought back to me so acutely the memories and sufferings of the war of 1870.

At the end of that great crisis, what were the feelings of those who had been its witnesses? At the dinner of the 15th of August, 1871, the guests inveigh against the principle of nationality—the principle of which Napoleon III. made himself the champion, and of which he became the victim; "they deplore this invention which takes from war its courteous character, the character of a duel between sovereigns. War will be like a struggle of animal races: one will have to eat up the other; and this condemns, in the future, either the French or the Germans to disappear from Europe." Renan interposed here, saying:

"'Well, we are mere functions—functions which we accomplish unconsciously, like the workmen of the Gobelins, who work from the inside and finish a tapestry which they don't see. . . . What is honesty? what is wisdom? what importance have these from a superhuman point of view? Nevertheless, let us be honest and wise. It is a part which is given to us by the Almighty. But he must not think that he deceives us and that we are his dupes!' And," says Goncourt, "the old seminarist said this with a low voice, almost afraid of what he had said, with his head on one side on his plate, and the air of a schoolboy who fears a blow which he feels coming—absolutely as if he feared a blow from the Almighty."

Nefftzer, the editor and founder of the *Temps*, would write no more in it after the war; he retired to Bâle, where he died a few years afterwards. He had been in his youth a student at the Protestant school of theology in Strasbourg. I knew him very intimately. He had a very original mind, and was one of those men who expend themselves in daily writing and in conversation, and who do not embody

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their full measure in a great work. He was a first-rate journalist, but journalism finished him. Nefftzer showed much cynical common-sense at those dinners. He never believed in the heroism of the National Guard, in the military genius of Trochu, in the patriotism of the men of Belleville, in Paris-Saragossa blowing itself up with dynamite, etc. He was ironical and Mephistophelian; not a sceptic at heart, but full of contempt for all shams. He was thoroughly sincere. One day, at dinner (he was an Alsatian by birth), he screamed (his voice was often a thunder):

"I am German, completely German. I only defend France from a sense of duty, but I know what is coming. It is Saint-Bartholomew, believe me, which is now causing the end of France. If France had become Protestant, it would have been the great nation of Europe. You see, in Protestant countries there is a gradation between the philosophy of the upper classes and the free inquiry of the lower classes. In France, between scepticism above and iconoclasm below there is a gulf, an abyss. Believe me, this is what is killing France."

"In the café," writes Goncourt, "which was growing dark, from this large *jordanesque* face, red under the light of the candle, which colored the thick and varicose skin; from this voice, at times incomprehensible, unruly, bursting out by eructations, came thoughts full of depth, irony, paradoxes almost of genius."

Correspondence.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It does not seem to me that your able correspondent, "G. B.," in his plea for universal suffrage, distinguishes clearly the differences which exist between questions of morals and of economics. I am not prepared to say that moral considerations do not affect, more or less, all questions of economics; but, in questions of public policy, either the one element or the other is more prominent, and therefore more easily apprehended by the masses.

Where the moral element can be prominently displayed, and the simple question of right and wrong made clearly apparent, I hold, with "G. B.," that the judgment of the masses is apt to approximate the truth; but in questions of economics, where the benefit is perhaps somewhat remote, and where more than the average intelligence is required to comprehend clearly, the judgment of the masses may be either right or wrong, for it is influenced not so much by the economical question at issue as by other considerations, such as party fealty, the recollection of some past moral question, or the personal qualities of the candidates.

The wrongs of slavery were eloquently portrayed. The question appealed strongly to the emotions of the masses, and their decision was right; but can such enthusiasm be evoked by the discussion of the tariff or the regulation of the currency? "G. B.'s" illustration of the prevention of Great Britain's interference in behalf of the South would seem to sustain my view. The aristocracy and the traders of Great Britain saw what benefit would accrue to them by crippling their most formidable competitor; the workmen of Lancashire could see nothing but a question of right and wrong. With all respect for the good workmen of Lancashire, I do not believe, could they have been convinced that Great Britain's interference would have meant higher wages and more comforts to them, that they would have uttered a protest.

One might concede that the people of this country, trained by universal suffrage, would act together in time of war, but it by no means follows that the same people would, by their decisions on questions of public policy, prevent the necessity of acting together in time of war. If universal suffrage were all that its advocates claim for it, the immense loss of life and treasure in the civil war would have been saved us. It is to be hoped that most of the questions of the future will not have to be solved by force of arms, and it therefore affords me but slight comfort to think that the people will act together in time of war.

If, as "G. B." contends, we do not get the effect of universal suffrage, where lies the blame if not on the people? Do not these same people organize readily for the apprehension of horse thieves or incendiaries? The telegraph no sooner announces a great catastrophe than they are organized to send relief. But let "G. B." attempt to organize from the masses tariff-reform clubs, or associations opposed to the unlimited coinage of silver, and I fear he will discover but little enthusiasm among those whose votes decide such questions.

I deferentially submit the above views to the consideration of "G. B.," for whose scholarly attainments I entertain the highest respect.

C. A. W.

Baltimore, November 1, 1890.

MORE McKINLEY PRICES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Upon the question of whether the McKinley Bill does really have an effect of increasing the cost of articles, domestic or foreign, or whether it is only a Democratic assertion for campaign purposes, I beg to direct your attention to the following letter handed me by the manager of the Hennepin Paper Company of this city. The writers are importers and manufacturers:

New York, October 15, 1890.

Dear Sirs: Your telegram 14th inst. received. We enclose bill for felt forwarded. This we bill at old price, but our stock received ere the McKinley Bill took effect is about exhausted. Hereafter prices will be as per list, *net*. F. Bredt & Co.

The felt mentioned is an essential for the manufacture of paper, and, "at old price," was sold at discounts of 25 and 10 off the list. The manager of the paper company informs me that the felts manufactured for the same purpose in this country are very much inferior to those imported (being made from domestic wool), wearing only two-thirds as long with the same use. In reply to an inquiry from him as to what American make could be substituted for the felts heretofore employed, F. Bredt & Co. write, under date of October 23, 1890:

"In answer to your question about the advanced price, would say that mills which have always used English felts will continue to do so, as it is impossible to obtain a domestic felt to give the satisfaction that an English one will. We do not know of any domestic felt we could guarantee to work as well."

A wholesale glass house here advises me that, since the McKinley Bill went into effect, the American manufacturers (who, by the way, paid their stockholders a dividend last year of $950,000) have advanced their rates upon glass, which they formerly sold to my informant at $7.50 per case, to $10 per case.

In the window of the "Plymouth" clothing-house, the largest establishment of the kind in this city, and one of the largest in the State, the following letter has been displayed for the information of the interested public:

New York, October 6, 1890.

Dear Sirs: We beg to inform you that hereafter the price of our men's best piqué kid gloves will be $22 50; other grades are raised in the same proportion.

As this advance happens to be at the beginning of the season, we would advise you to take the benefit of the risk of your importations, and to put up the retail price of the Perrin's best piqué to $2.25 immediately.

Perrin Frères & Cie.

Of course this display was accompanied with the statement that, having purchased largely before the advance in prices occasioned by the McKinley Bill, the customers of the "Plymouth" could have the advantage of the circumstance.—Yours respectfully,

John R. Van Derlip.

Minneapolis, Minn., October 27, 1890.

THE "AMERICAN PUBLISHERS' ASSOCIATION."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On reading the article entitled "A New Way to Publish Books," in the last *Nation*, I cannot resist the temptation to send you a third scene in this little comedy of swindling.

The letters I have received from this precious Publishers' Association are, word for word, like the two that you print; indeed, I should almost have supposed myself to be the "lady in a Maine village," were it not that I have never written any religious poetry.

Having persistently refused to receive the books in question, I was favored a day or two ago with the enclosed letter, which is really quite touching in its appeal for assistance. Let us hope that the gentlemen of the American Publishers' Association have other means of support besides the precarious one of endeavoring to swindle the secluded scribblers of Maine.—Very truly yours,

Laura E. Richards.

Gardiner, Maine, October 29, 1890.

Chicago, Ill., Oct. 24rd, 1890.

Dear Madam: Will you not receive Books, pay express charges and hold them subject to our order or remit for them if disposed of? You have a good representation in the work, with which we are sure you will be pleased. Have authorized the Agent to allow you examination. If you cannot possibly take them, perhaps you could find an Agent for us who would dispose of the copies.

Please let us hear from you in regard to the matter at once, and oblige,

Yours sincerely,

American Pub. Association.

CELTS AND LATINS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read in a Paris letter to the *Nation* on the Boulanger fiasco the following sentence: "The philosophy of Boulangism will be explained by future historians, who will find in it a proof of the hidden hero-worship which exists in the Latin race." Gen. Boulanger himself, in a letter which he has just written to a Neapolitan correspondent, says: "And it is just to say that these interests, far from making Italy the ally of the German Empire, ought to make her the ally of the Latin sister, Republican France"; and in company just now with a distinguished French authoress who has been visiting Ireland, we heard her say of the Irish that "they are so sympathetic with us, the Celts—quite Latin, in fact."

Now, there is very little Latin blood in the inhabitants of certain parts of Italy—Sicily and Naples, for instance, and Piedmont; but in that part of the peninsula where the old stock

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has been more or less preserved from mixture, as in the Abruzzi, not to exclude other adjoining sections, one may still catch glimpses of the old nature, and it is as unlike anything French as one can imagine, as unlike as the German. It is easy to see the early race types in most parts of Italy, and the most casual observer will recognize, for instance, in passing from the Latin lands of the Pontine plains to the Greek shores at Terracina, that another race is in presence, or in crossing the Apennines from Tuscany to Bologna; and the Umbrians are as different from the Tuscans (still "Tuscus obesus") as the Norman is from the Breton. The Umbrian, again, is quite unlike the man of the hills of Latium. The only Italian who resembles the French Celt is the kindred Piedmontese, the descendant of the cis-Alpine Gaul of Cæsar.

The Latin conquest probably imposed a common language on all southern Europe, though the Slavic invasions of the Balkan country and the reflex influence of Constantinople, where the Greek always ruled, repelled it, except where the Latin stock dominated, as in Rumania and with the scattered Wallach communities in the peninsula. The imposition of the language of the conqueror, however, is as far from the establishment of a community of race as is the conversion to a religion. It is simply ridiculous to talk of the French being a Latin race, or of a race sympathy between French and Italian, for there is none. The Frenchman is on the whole just what he was described by the Roman historians of the beginning of the era, while the Italian (with allowance to be made for the regional differences I have noticed) is a grave, even saturnine, race, conservative to a fault, distinguished more by the inertia of his character than by any positive quality, averse from strangers even to inhospitality, but sentimental and pathetic, and if sympathetic, rather with the Teutonic than the Gallic character. There has not been to my knowledge a Frenchman in Rome, since I knew it, who did not freely express his dislike or contempt for the Italians, and I knew the city and the French as long ago as they kept garrison for the Pope. The only sympathy between them is that of the dog and cat: circumstances might make them good friends, but it is not in their natures. I have no hesitation in saying, from what I see continually of the French here, that there is no more reality in the professions of sisterly feeling for Italy than there is in the high humanity of the ideal of the communism of 1870. The plea of sisterhood of races is just as insincere as the love of peace they are always talking about, and which the Italians really feel.

I am not ignorant of the virtues of the Gaul or the vices of the Latin, but, such as they are, they are different virtues and different vices. Ethnology has enough to do when it has to include the Greek of Sicily, the Hernici of the Sabine Hills, the morose Tuscan, with the amiable Umbrian, and the thrifty, unæsthetic Piedmontese in one nationality; but there may be some blood in common from the long intercourse; we may as well go back to Father Adam as to attempt to compel science to discover the community between the Latin and the Gaul.—Yours truly, N. N.

"TRANSMOGRIFY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As though it were a matter of public importance, Mr. Hensleigh Wedgwood recently wrote, regarding this expression, in *Notes and Queries*: "I had fully supposed that it was an invention of the present century, and was much surprised to find, from a quotation in Worcester, that it was used by Fielding, although in which of his works is not mentioned." Not altogether without interest, however, is this avowal, as showing how far, from choosing to decline expedient research, even a professed philologist may be deceived by trusting to a mere impression.

Not to speak of the *transmography* of Nathaniel Bailey (ed. 1730), Guy Miege's *Great French Dictionary* (1687) records *transmogrify'd;* and this, most probably, or *transmogrify*, was noticed by lexicographers still earlier.

Shadwell, as cited in Mr. Thomas Wright's *Dictionary of Obsolete and Provincial English*, used *transmography'd* in 1688; nor, presumably, are the following quotations among the oldest that might be produced for the word in question:

"She had almost been *transmogrify'd*." Sir Thomas Urquhart, *Rabelais* (1653), Vol. I., p. 7 (ed. 1694).

"Meaning *transmografied* [printed *transmografide*], or metamorphosed into a Mandrake." Samuel Holland, *Zara* (1656), p. 33, foot-note (ed. 1719).

The Rev. Myles Davies (1716) has *transmografying;* Fielding (1728), *transmographied*, twice; Mrs. Eliza Heywood (1744) and Foote (1776), *transmogrified;* the Rev. G. W. Lemon (1783), *transmographied*, etc., etc.

If, as can hardly be doubted, it was from Jodrell that Dr. Worcester took, abridged, what he puts forward as Fielding's, he should have retained the spelling which he found, instead of altering it to *transmogrified.*

Nowhere, I believe, except in a glossary or two, has the literary existence of *transmogrify* or *transmogrified* yet been demonstrated by a genuine quotation.

As estimated by Dr. Worcester, *transmogrify* is "ludicrous and low"; and Dr. Webster's editors think it to be "colloquial and low." Nevertheless, the taste must be somewhat squeamish that would find grave fault with Archdeacon Hare for saying, with reference to Pinkerton's egregious attempt in 'Thea Visiona of Mirza,' at the euphonization of English: "It may be amusing to cast a look at the tricks by which poor Addison has been thus strangely *transmogrified.*" *Philological Museum*, Vol. I., p. 649 (1832).—Your obedient servant,

F. H.

Marlesford, England, October 18, 1890.

Notes.

Funk & Wagnalls will be the American publishers of 'In Darkest England, and the Way Out,' by Gen. Booth, chief of the Salvation Army.

Harper & Bros. will publish Sir Walter Scott's Journal, edited by Mr. David Douglas, the well-known Edinburgh publisher; Froude's biography of Beaconsfield; 'Selections from the Sonnets of Wordsworth,' with illustrations by Alfred Parsons; selections from the letters of George W. Smalley to the New York *Tribune*, in two volumes; and 'Freedom Triumphant,' the end of the civil-war series by C. C. Coffin.

A gift-book will be made by Albert & Scott, Chicago, of the essays on Friendship by Cicero, Bacon, and Emerson.

'Central Points of Our Lord's Ministry,' popular New Testament studies, by the Rev. Henry Wace, is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

Mr. John Murray announces a life of the late Dean Burgon, author of 'Twelve Good Men' and many other books, by his friend Dean Goulburn. Dean Burgon was himself a good man beyond a doubt, and a scholar within certain rather narrow lines. But when he took up his pen in controversy (in which he delighted), he became perhaps the most amazingly and amusingly vituperative writer of our time. He was naturally a Tory both in religion and politics.

We learn from the *Academy* of October 18 that Mr. William Sharp will spend the winter in Rome at work upon a life of Joseph Severn, the friend of Keats. Severn's sons have intrusted him with the materials for this work, which are said to include a vast number of interesting letters. Severn lived in Rome for sixty years, and was in the way of seeing many people of eminence, both Italians and visitors. It will be Mr. Sharp's fault if the Life shall not prove a more than ordinarily entertaining book. Sampson Low & Co. will publish it.

The same journal states that the reason why no maps are given in Prof. S. R. Gardiner's recently published 'Student's History of England' is, that when that work is complete in three volumes, it will be accompanied by a 'Student's Atlas of English History,' upon which Mr. Gardiner is now engaged. It is hoped that this will be published in a few months.

A new edition, the third, of 'Brehm's Thierleben' is in preparation (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: F. W. Christern). Prof. Pechuel-Loesche has charge of the revision. Dr. E. L. Krause furnishes a memoir of the deceased author. More than a thousand new illustrations have been procured for the work, which will be issued in 130 weekly parts.

We spoke last week of a Boston edition of 'Romola,' in two volumes, copiously illustrated with photogravures pertaining to the story and to Florence. As sometimes happens, the same conception has been carried out by another house, that of Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, in a very similar style as to size of volumes, decorative binding, and illustrations. A smaller printed page with broader margins and more open typography produces volumes no larger; but this is seen to arise from the use of thinner paper, and if the print seems at first glance more readable, it cannot, on a careful examination, be pronounced so good as in the edition of Estes & Lauriat. The photogravures are just about as numerous in both, and not a few are the same or deal with the same subject. The Philadelphia series runs more to portraits and statuary, and even includes a lonesome design representing Romola and her father. On the whole, in the selection, and certainly in the execution, we prefer this series, which may be compared with the other in the view of Florence from San Miniato (identical), the portrait of Savonarola, and the panel picture of his execution. Still, one may well hesitate in making up a final judgment between the rival enterprises.

The town of Lancaster, one of the oldest in Massachusetts, has been singularly fortunate in its historian. Within the past six years Mr. Henry S. Nourse has issued two volumes, one of 'Early Records' and one of 'Military Annals,' admirable in style, matter, and scholarly accuracy; and last year he was commissioned by the town to edit a third and companion volume (partly involving the first-named), a 'Birth, Marriage, and Death Register, Church Records and Epitaphs of Lancaster, 1643-1850' (Boston: George E. Littlefield). It might easily be maintained that more labor had gone to the making of this than of its predecessors, such pains have been taken to copy literally from the records, to compare and correct and supplement, and to furnish the thread

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to the whole in an index of more than fifty pages. In the nature of the case, there is hardly anything to be called readable between the covers except the list of mortal complaints of the dead and the inscriptions on the tombstones. There is a good variety of these last in verse, and those of the older time bespeak a certain cultivation in the community. The Shakers, like the Quakers elsewhere, were very brief and businesslike in their inscriptions. This Register adds another to the invaluable memorials which the pursuit of genealogy and the pride of ancestry in New England have produced.

It can hardly be maintained that New England has not had her share in the determination of the national diet, both by the propaganda of her emigrant families and by the making of cook-books. Still, perhaps her mission in this respect is not ended, and something new seems to have been struck out in Lucia Gray Swett's 'New England Breakfast Breads, Luncheon and Tea Biscuits' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). What is obvious is the minuteness of the instructions for the benefit of the inexperienced. The book is mechanically attractive, with large type.

We have received from Roberts Bros., Boston, a series of twelve photogravures of New England country and seashore scenes, with poetical captions opposite each, and a running text on nature in New England by Hamilton Wright Mabie. The illustrations are well selected, and the snow and sea-views are particularly effective and truthful, though artistically the eye is wearied occasionally by hard contrast of light and shade, and by a certain harshness in the tints. The text of Mr. Mabie is exceptional, since, so far from being perfunctory, as is usually the case in essays written for pictures, it is really a very good paper upon the aspects of New England landscape, the relation of it to the inhabitants, and the rendering of it by poets and naturalists. Mr. Mabie is a lover of the land, in all its phases, but he seems to know little of the seashore. The title of the volume, which is prettily covered, is 'Our New England.'

The late A. H. Welsh, whose history of English literature has much vogue in the West, left a nearly finished condensation of the criticism of that work, which has been completed and published under the title of 'A Digest of English and American Literature' (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.). It presents a tabular view of the subject in four columns, continued page after page. In the first column historical events are entered; in the second, "characteristics" of the time; in the third, writers, chronologically arranged, with brief biography and criticism of them; in the fourth, their works, also with criticism. Only the principal works are given, and the remarks are often quoted, and usually from excellent sources. There is also an appendix in which omitted authors are listed, but without criticism, on the ground, apparently, that these are or have been known, but need not be seriously regarded. The principal value of the text lies in its condensed critical estimate of each author, which is unusually excellent, being catholic, temperate, and well expressed. Such a critical chart is unknown to us, and it may well be useful for reference and in study.

'European Days and Ways,' by Alfred E. Lee (Lippincott), is a diary of travel in the more attractive parts of Europe, Holland, Switzerland, Southern Italy, Spain, and the Tyrol, in which the sights of the country, more particularly its landscape, are sympathetically described, with some help from historical association. The author writes of Frankfort and Germany with more detail, and in this portion of the volume his individuality is more felt. As a whole, the book is a narrative of a European tour over well-known roads, with nothing specially the author's own to distinguish it from other similar works.

Another volume, partly of travel, partly of criticism, not pretending to any eminent merit, 'Old Wine in New Bottles,' by Brinton W. Woodward (Lawrence, Kans.: *Journal* Publishing Co.), is noticeable as an example of literary recreation; it is journalistic in origin, and belongs with the better sort of newspaper work that goes into the "literary column."

G. P. Putnam's Sons have begun a second series of "Literary Gems," thin pocket pieces bound in red leatherette and cased in a box, and making strange bedfellows together in their common pasteboard receptacle: Ruskin's 'King of the Golden River,' Sheridan's "School for Scandal," Butler's 'Nothing to Wear,' Froude's 'Science of History,' Carlyle's 'Nibelungen Lied,' and Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese.' All are handsomely printed, and each has an engraved frontispiece, two of which are portraits—of Froude and Mrs. Browning.

The four-volume Life of Garrison published by the Century Company in 1885-1889 consists so largely of documentary matter interwoven with and supporting the narrative that an abridgment in a single volume has naturally been attempted. In 1888, before the latter half of the main work had appeared, Frances E. Cooke rewrote the story for young people in a little volume entitled 'An American Hero' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.). This has now been succeeded by a much fuller abstract, though still of moderate size, made *con amore* by the well-known Manchester librarian, Mr. W. E. A. Axon. It is called 'The Story of a Noble Life,' and has been prepared for adults as a part of the "Onward Series," cheaply issued in Manchester from the Onward Publishing Office. Mr. Axon has executed his difficult task with good judgment and excellent comprehension of the subject. On the Continent still another reduction (an "autorisirter Auszug") has been made by Prof. Georg von Gizycki of the University of Berlin ('William Lloyd Garrison'; Berlin: A. Asher & Co.). From a literary point of view, and for its ethical grasp of the personage and movement delineated, this must be allowed the first rank; typographically, too, it leaves nothing to be desired.

The railroad bridge superseding the steam ferry over the Thames River at New London was an undertaking whose costliness and difficulty may be judged from the delay in commencing it. It involved a serious alteration of the lines of approach at both ends, and it had to be built in water of great depth (an estuary or fjord rather than a river) on a bottom also very deep before hard pan was reached. The piling for the piers and the great draw was found to present peculiar obstacles, which in the end were very skilfully and even rapidly overcome, by means which are now common property. It was desirable that the operations resulting in so fine a structure should be permanently recorded for reference, and Mr. Alfred P. Boller of this city, the chief engineer of the bridge, has done well to publish an account, with views and diagrams, in the shape of his report to the general manager of the road. It is not too technical for a layman to understand and enjoy, while the statistics of tests and other data constitute a valuable acquisition for the profession.

A very sweeping generalization is made in 'Aryan Sun-Myths the Origin of Religions' (Troy: Nims & Knight), a book the value of which is sufficiently indicated by its title. It contains a large number of facts, sometimes misstated, generally misunderstood and undigested. Jesus, says the author calmly, was an Essene, and the Essenes were Buddhists—here is Christianity in a nutshell. There is a more sober Introduction by Mr. Charles Morris, the author of 'The Aryan Race.'

All Semitic scholars will welcome the 'Lectures on the Comparative Grammar of the Semitic Languages' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.), by the late Prof. William Wright, edited, after his death, by Prof. W. Robertson Smith, who has added a few notes. It is the first attempt at a Semitic comparative grammar, and it did not enter into the plan of the lamented author to make exhaustive discussions of all questions. But it is something to have his mature opinion on so many grammatical points, and it is to be hoped that his book will stimulate further study of this important subject.

An agreeable addition to our historical apparatus is the English translation of the 'Church-History' and 'Constantine' of Eusebius, by Prof. McGiffert of Lane Theological Seminary and Prof. Richardson of the Hartford Seminary (New York: The Christian Literature Co.). The notes are numerous and helpful, and the typography of the book is excellent. The editors deserve praise for their thorough work. This is the first volume of the second series of "The Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers," edited by Messrs. Schaff and Wace.

The lectures on religious movements delivered at the South Place Institute in 1888-89 have been collected into a volume and published under the title 'Religious Systems of the World' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.). They range over a great variety of subjects, from Methodism to Buddhism in Christianity, from the old Assyrian religion to the modern Ethical Culture Societies, and are most of them vigorous, fair, and readable. The lecturers are competent exponents of the various creeds and tendencies treated, and the book gives a good idea of the currents of religious thought of to-day.

The second volume of the 'Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica' (Oxford) contains articles on the authorship and the titles of the Psalms according to early Jewish authorities, by A. Neubauer; the origin and mutual relation of the Synoptic Gospels, by F. H. Woods; the day and year of St. Polycarp's martyrdom, by C. H. Turner; the Clementine Homilies, by C. Bigg; the evidence of the early versions and patristic quotations on the text of the books of the New Testament, by J. M. Bebb; the Ammonian sections, Eusebian canons, and harmonizing tables in the Syriac Tetraevangelium, by G. H. Gwilliam; the Codex Amiatinus and its birthplace, by H. J. White; the Italian origin of the Codex Amiatinus and the localizing of Italian MSS., by W. Sanday. This is a worthy companion to the first volume, and shows that Oxford has entered seriously on a new career of Biblical and ecclesiastical research.

Dr. C. J. Vaughan's 'The Epistle to the Hebrews' (Macmillan), while it is full of the devoutness and simplicity that characterize this estimable preacher, completely ignores the interesting critical and philosophical-religious questions connected with the Epistle, holding without argument to the most conservative point of view.

An important contribution to the history of Oriental Christian law is made by the publication of the Abessinian 'Jus Connubii' (Berlin: F. Schneider & Co.), edited, with Ethiopic and Arabic texts, Latin translation, and a juridi-

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cal-historical dissertation, by Dr. Johannes Bachmann. This forms Part i. of the "Corpus Juris Abessinorum" to be issued by Dr. Bachmann. The date of this code he puts in the thirteenth century; the material, however, going back much further.

Germany is just now much exercised over the best mode of giving instruction in Hebrew in the Gymnasia, and, by way of solving the question, Dr. Bachmann offers a 'Preparation und Kommentar zu den Psalmen' (Berlin: Schneider), in which each psalm is provided with vocabulary, translation, and notes. The notes are good, and the book will be useful to others than beginners. The first fasciculus comprises Psalms 1-20.

Juan Valera's series of letters on South American literature, noticed in these columns, is now followed by the same author's 'Nuevas Cartas Americanas' (Madrid: Fernando Fé). There is little that is ordered or systematic about the book, no attempt being made to give a complete conspectus of so much as the literature of any one country, and the choice of authors treated and books alluded to depending entirely on suggestions growing out of Valera's personal acquaintance with Spanish-American writers, or on the receipt of volumes despatched to the critic for the purpose of securing his notice. Indeed, now that he has made himself a sort of herald to proclaim the merits of South American literature in Spain, he appears to be overwhelmed with books sent him by aspiring authors. However, he makes his selections so as to insure an agreeable variety in the matter discussed, while the charm and grace of his style are everywhere present. The present volume makes excursions into the literature of the Argentine Republic, Chili, Mexico, Ecuador, and Peru, and so far recognizes the United States as a part of America as to include a review of 'Looking Backward.' Valera's residence in Washington as Spanish Minister appears to have led him to give considerable attention to our writers, and his knowledge of them, freely displayed in allusions, is remarkably exact for a foreigner.

In the October number of the *Figaro Illustré*, now the most sumptuous of French monthly magazines, can be seen a proof of the position held in Paris by certain American artists of the French school. One full-page color print is by Mr. D. Ridgway Knight, and a sketch of life in India is abundantly illustrated by Mr. Edwin Lord Weeks, who figures, oddly enough, in the table of contents as Lord Edwin Weeks.

In the *Overland Monthly* for October attention will be drawn to "Some Memories of Charles Darwin," a pleasant and somewhat intimate picture of Down and the great naturalist's environment, by a friend and occasional guest, L. A. Nash. The name of the place belies its altitude, for Down "stands high up—level with the cross on the top of St. Paul's Cathedral, which shows itself on rarely clear days through the murky cloud hanging over the distant city."

A very notable article on an early American architect, Charles Bulfinch, from the pen of Ashton R. Willard, heads the table of contents in the *New England Magazine* for November. Mr. Willard has been indefatigable in research, and gives a large number of photographic views of Bulfinch's monuments, which embrace the Boston State House and part of the Capitol at Washington, with churches, charitable institutions, private dwellings, etc., in abundance. There are also two portraits of Bulfinch, whose name deserves to be remembered.

The October Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains an account of a journey in eastern Persia by Lieut. H. B. Vaughan, in the course of which he passed over the western border of the Kavir or Salt Desert. At first sight it looked like "a vast frozen sea stretching away to the right as far as the eye could reach, in one vast glistening expanse. A more careful examination proved it to be nothing more than salt formed into one immense sheet of dazzling brilliancy, while here and there upon its surface pools of water, showing up in the most intense blue, were visible." Among the animals seen were snakes which "used to climb bushes, and, hitching their tails around a bough, would stick their bodies out in imitation of a withered branch, and thus remain motionless for hours. My servant said that they were waiting for a bird to come and perch on them, when they would immediately strike it." The Governor of Lagos, Sir A. Moloney, contributes some notes on that colony and Yoruba. Among other things he speaks of the Mohammedans of Lagos, who have increased in the past twenty-five years from 800 to 15,000, as "a most orderly, intellectual, and respectable class of citizens, composed of all the tribes of Yoruba." He gives also an interesting account of some Dahomey tribes who live in lake dwellings, and are "not only fishermen, but are pastoral," their cattle being kept in pens adjoining their houses, built on piles over the water, like their dwellings. This is followed by the valuable address of Sir Lambert Playfair before the geographical section of the British Association on the "Mediterranean, physical and historical," in the course of which he spoke in the highest terms of what the French have accomplished in Algeria and Tunisia.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October contains several of the papers read before the British Association at Leeds. Among these is one by Mr. J. W. Wells on the commercial development of Brazil, in which he showed that the new republic has some 8,200 miles of railway constructed at a cost of £61,-000,000. This mileage will be largely increased, he believes, in the immediate future by the building of cheap railways into the interior, with a resulting "phenomenal" prosperity for the country. There is also given the extremely interesting and suggestive, though rather sensational, paper by Mr. E. G. Ravenstein, on "The Lands of the Globe still available for European Settlement," together with an abstract of the discussion which followed. His main conclusions are that, at the present standard of life, the cultivable area of the earth would feed about six thousand millions of people (5,994,000,000). Estimating the present population of the world to be 1,468,000,000, with an increase of 8 per cent. each decade, in 182 years the earth would be full.

—We can now congratulate some three to four million of people living in or about New York on having their territory accurately mapped by the leading cartographical establishment of this country, and one of the foremost in the world. We allude to the folio 'Atlas of the Metropolitan District and Adjacent Country' just issued by Julius Bien & Co. It comprises the counties of New York, Kings, Richmond, Westchester, and part of Queens; in New Jersey the county of Hudson entire, with parts of Bergen, Passaic, Essex, and Union. In other words, it embraces both sides of the Hudson to Peekskill, all of New Jersey east of Orange Mountain, between Paterson and Elizabeth, all of Staten Island, Long Island west of Jamaica, and all of New York State south of 41° 20′, lying between the Hudson and the Connecticut border. The several sheets—there are a dozen of them, besides an index map—are so devised as to overlap each other, more or less, so that, for example, the four principal cities of New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City, and Newark are exhibited both in their north-south and in their east-west relations. The scale is liberal—two inches to the mile; and, throughout, the topography is indicated by contour lines at ten or twenty-foot intervals, with conventional signs and coloring for marsh and woodland. The soundings of river and bay are also recorded. Railroads and common roads are given. The basis of the Atlas, of course, has been the New Jersey Survey and the Coast Survey; but these indisputable sources have been supplemented by special surveys conducted by Messrs. J. R. Bien and C. C. Vermeule. For real-estate purposes and the choice of a suburban home, for pleasure driving and scenic enjoyment, and for a larger grasp of the metropolitan problem, this Atlas answers every need in the most authoritative manner. The execution is beautiful, as was to be expected, while the cost to the purchaser is moderate.

—The *Cosmopolitan Magazine* for November contains two articles relating to the most Eastern countries of the world. Professor Arthur Sherburne Hardy of Dartmouth College, who spent his summer vacation in Japan seeking materials for his projected biography of Dr. Joseph Neesima, President of the Doshisha University of Kioto, has an illustrated article on "The Army of Japan." He shows that as early as 1849 "changes had been made to meet the demands of modern warfare, firearms having been adopted for the shogun's troops, and a tactical system borrowed from the Dutch." The late ex-daimio of Echizen was among the very first of the great feudatories of the Em ire to introduce the Dutch system, and to build a gun factory in his dominions. A number of good reproductions of sketches from the recent illustrated publication of an officer in the imperial army are given. The paper will be followed by a second one giving the results of personal observation, and, among other things, describing the new rifle invented by Col. Murata of the Japanese Army, with which the troops have been armed since last year. Col. Charles Chaillé Lo g, recently Secretary to the Amer can Legation in Séoul, treats of "Art and the Monastery in Corea," describing a visit paid by him to a fortress garrisoned by clerical militia, or the Monastery of Sok-Oang-Sa in the "province" of Anpien, endowed in 1392 by Ni Taidjo, the founder of the ruling dynasty, of which the present King is the 28th. He shows that Corean art was an "exotic and born[e?] in the bosom of the monastery. It came to Corea with Buddhism in its march from India through China." "It fell when temple and tower went down in the fourteenth century." While incidentally giving some information about contemporary Corean politics and Chinese influence over the "younger brother," by which China periodically frightens Corea into submission, little or no light is thrown upon that question which fascinates and baffles students of Corean history—the almost utter annihilation of Buddhism in the Land of Morning Calm. However, since the "priests from the Western Ocean," *i. e.*, American Methodists and Presbyterians, have gained access and residence inside the capital, the Buddhist monks are now memorializing the King to enjoy the same privileges in Séoul. In this, unless we greatly err, we discern less a sign of the renascence of Corean Buddhism than the zealous prodding of the Shin sect of Japanese

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Buddhists, who have a mission temple at Gensan, the open port near the monastery, and who are bound, if possible, to beat the Christians at every point.

—The same number of the *Cosmopolitan* contains an excellent essay upon military desertion by Capt. J. W. Pope, commanding the military prison at Fort Leavenworth, into which is woven a description of the prison itself. Captain Pope lays especial stress upon the fact that popular sentiment fails to regard desertion as a moral crime, but classes it with revenue frauds and other breaches of the statute law. "Running away from the army" is looked upon as any other breach of contract—something that should not be done, but which neither implies vice in the doer nor deserves severe punishment. The little army, outside of the popular pale, is practically powerless to recover its own. They become hidden in a community which, when it recognizes, sympathizes with them. This general indifference to the most heinous military offence (next to mutiny) is itself responsible for the most of it, for men reared under such influences change their clothes, but not their minds, by becoming soldiers. It is very rare after men are seasoned; it is the raw and unformed, the constitutional rovers, who generally desert. It is a curious fact, however, that the desertions far outnumber the deserters, for these vagabonds have a curious fondness for again and again enlisting and repeating their crime. The difficulty of recognition, and their comparative immunity from arrest, increase the temptation. Until very recently there were innumerable obstacles (not all now removed) to their apprehension, and the present Congress by legal enactment actually relieves from all penalty every deserter who for two years succeeds in avoiding arrest. In its intrinsic nature desertion is a continuing offence, which age aggravates, not condones. But hereafter it is outlawed in two years, and the vast horde of deserters throughout the country have had thrown around them not only immunity from punishment, but, in effect, the secrecy of privileged communications while engaged in and after securing their absolution. The prison seems to be managed in a common-sense, humanitarian way, with plenty of work, but also plenty of encouragement. It would appear that the discipline is good, and that it is directed to the elevation of the convict and to making him a self-supporting civilian, not a soldier, on his release. The commandant seems well abreast of the best sentiment of modern prison managers.

—The chief interest, writes a correspondent, attached to the Pastel Show which has just opened in London is the fact that—if current report be true—it is the last of any kind to be held in the Grosvenor. The proprietor of the gallery, Sir Coutts Lindsay, it is said, finds his club more profitable, and so the rooms once sacred to Pre-Raphaelitism and all that was holiest and most affected in English art are to be sacrificed to the needs of smokers and diners. This is the more to be regretted as Pre-Raphaelites and their followers have long since deserted the Grosvenor, while last spring Sir Coutts Lindsay, in giving prominence to the work of younger Scotchmen and Englishmen, seemed on the point of inaugurating for his gallery a really healthy and vigorous career. Two pastel shows have already been held in the Grosvenor at the same season, and probably to their success is due the formation of a Society of British Pastellists which this year gives its first exhibition. But though the Society is British, some of the best work comes from foreigners. P. S. Kroyer, a Dane, has three marvellous little studies, which show him to be a thorough master of his medium, as well as of very difficult problems of light and atmospheric effects. His work and that of Mr. J. E. Blanche is a refreshing contrast to the amateurism and pastel imitations of oils and water colors with which the gallery abounds. Mlle. Anna Belinska also has sent some good vigorous studies. Among the members of the Society, Mr. Arthur Melville and Mr. James Guthrie, the two Scotchmen who distinguished themselves in the Grosvenor last spring, again come to the fore with good figure subjects cleverly handled. There are delightful little notes of glaciers, beautiful bits of color by Mr. Stott of Oldham; several very suggestive sketches of sky and meadows, autumn foliage, and cottage gardens by Mr. George Clausen; and some strong, vigorously modelled studies of tigers by Mr. J. M. Swan. But, though there is still more good work by Mr. Muhrman, Mr. Peppercorn, Mr. McLure Hamilton, and a few others, scattered through the galleries, the show, as a whole, is rather weak. The walls of five rooms have been covered; one would easily have held all that was worth showing.

—Alberich Konrad Hofmann, Professor of the Old German and Old Romance languages and literatures at the University of Munich, who died in Trauenstein, Bavaria, October 1, in the seventy-first year of his age, was a man of profound and varied learning, a type of scholar of which the poet Uhland was one of the most distinguished representatives, and which is fast disappearing even from the academical circles of the fatherland. Hofmann was born November 19, 1819, at Banz, near Bamberg, where his father held the office of *Rentamtmann*. It was here that Hofmann's early youth was spent, and the romantic historical associations of the place, heightened by the exceeding picturesqueness of its position, left a lasting impress upon his character. He pursued his preparatory studies in the Gymnasium at Bamberg, and entered the University of Munich in 1837, where he was matriculated as a student of medicine, but soon began to hear lectures on philology and philosophy. In 1843 he went to Erlangen and thence to Leipzig and Berlin, and now turned his attention to Oriental languages — Arabic, Sanskrit, and Zend—and to palæography. In 1848 he took the degree of doctor of philosophy at Leipzig, after a course of university studies extending over eleven years. From 1850 to 1851 he was in Paris, devoting himself to special researches in the libraries of that city. He then returned to Munich, and, in 1853, was appointed to the Professorship of Old German, made vacant by the death of Schmeller. His lectures were, at first, not confined to this subject, but comprised the Romanic languages, Sanskrit, and palæography, although, during the last twenty years of his life, his academical instruction and original investigations centred in Old German and Old Romanic, and it is upon his labors in these provinces of scholarship that his reputation chiefly rests. His published writings consist, for the most part, of criticisms and editions of texts, academical dissertations and monographs, nearly all of them comparatively small in bulk, but exceedingly important for the specialist as embodying the results of original researches. It is, however, as a teacher rather than as an author that Hofmann has exerted the widest and most enduring influence. The seeds which he thus sowed with generous hand have sprung and borne fruit in many climes and in both hemispheres. It may be added, in illustration of the versatility of Hofmann's genius, that he was also an appreciative connoisseur in art and an accomplished musician.

—Mr. Barnard, astronomer of the Lick Observatory, has communicated to the *Astronomische Nachrichten* the results of his physical and other observations of the recent comet (Brooks 1889 V), an object likely to become historical, not only on account of its companion system, more complex and remarkable than any previously discovered, but also because of the possible identity of the comet with Lexell's comet of 1770. On every possible occasion, says Mr. Barnard, from the discovery of the companions until they disappeared from sight, the comet was constantly and thoroughly observed with the great telescope, and the adjacent region was frequently scrutinized for new objects or abnormal appearances. The term "fragments," often applied to these small bodies, is altogether inappropriate, as it implies knowledge of the method of their formation which we certainly do not possess. The measures clearly show that the separation of the companions from the main comet could not have been a very recent event; and their formation as distinct bodies possibly took place, as Mr. Chandler has suggested, at the time of the appulse with Jupiter in 1886. Mr. Barnard found the companions not only comets distinctly separate in every respect, but as perfect in form and individuality as the main comet itself. Certain anomalous appendages, recorded by observers elsewhere, Mr. Barnard explains away by the comet's passage through a region of faint and unknown nebulæ—a position which his superior location and optical power may well entitle him to take. One of these companions underwent a series of changes, entirely unique—first losing its well-defined nucleus and becoming more and more diffuse from night to night, at the same time increasing in size and becoming fainter. After about a month its place became to all appearance entirely void; and Mr. Barnard has not the slightest doubt that this companion actually dissipated itself into space and absolutely ceased to exist, if, indeed, it were not absorbed into the main comet.

—This series of observations upon objects of extreme faintness, made in part with the twelve-inch and in part with the thirty-six-inch telescope of the Lick Observatory, has furnished the much desired means of critically comparing the two. In the use of the greater telescope a decided gain was found in the larger scale and increased brightness of the cometary structures; particularly were the exact measures far more easy and precise. Towards the close of the season, however, when bad weather had set in and the atmosphere become unsteady, the advantage of the greater telescope was not so marked. Another interesting feature of this work results from the capacity of the great glass to follow important comets in their recession from the sun far beyond the reach of the smaller instruments. Also, Mr. Barnard discovered incidentally many unknown nebulæ in the region passed over by the comet—a region supposed to be deficient in nebulæ—and he thinks it likely that the great telescope would readily reveal more unknown nebulæ than the entire number in Dreyer, the latest catalogue. Connected with this important research upon the Brooks comet, we should note also a novel suggestion by Mr. Barnard, in a late number of Gould's *Astronomical Journal*, as to the possibility of following the short-period comets throughout their entire orbits. As is well

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known, this has never yet been done; but the extraordinary optical power now available on Mount Hamilton has already enabled the observers there to follow present faint comets to a much greater distance than it is possible for many of the periodic comets ever to attain. If this suggestion can be realized, new and important data will be obtainable for more accurate orbits of these bodies. Mr. Barnard proposes making a search with the great telescope for Winnecke's comet and Encke's, without waiting for their return to perihelion, provided the mathematical astronomers will tell him pretty nearly where to look for them.

WEEDEN'S ECONOMIC HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND.

Economic and Social History of New England. 1620–1789. By William B. Weeden. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE bolder outlines of New England history have been traced by the pens of many writers, but much remains to be done in filling in details. There is a wealth of materials to be drawn upon, both in published and unpublished papers, and Mr. Weeden has labored most industriously to bring these buried treasures within the reach of modern readers. It must be admitted that they make a rather disorderly pile, things being taken up very much as they occur in human life, which is an incongruous enough mixture; but as there is a full index, it is not necessary to read consecutively. Still, Mr. Weeden's transitions are sometimes so abrupt as to be confusing. Under the heading "Standards of Currency," for example, we have the following paragraph:

"The varying standards of currency are puzzling. There was the legal tender of ordinary commodities, farm produce, lumber, etc., known as 'country or money pay.' The prices of these articles were generally fixed in the rates for taxes, though Rhode Island in this year, 1662, made them 'at such prices as it then goeth to the marchants as moneye pay.' Then she allowed 40s. in country pay to be commuted into 30s. New England coin, or 22s. 6d. of English sterling coin. This made three positive currencies. In Newbury and Lynn, Mass., a cord of oak wood was worth 1s. 6d., the same as one bushel of turnips. Watertown, Mass., has a fulling-mill. Connecticut prohibits the export of tanned leather. Her tanners had the opportunity of procuring dry hides which were brought in from Virginia and elsewhere."

This seems a purely fortuitous juxtaposition, and the book is full of like instances; but as Mr. Weeden keeps pretty steadily to the chronological order of events, there is less confusion than might be expected. There is a certain impressiveness in the steady progress from the day of very small things, when a single cow was owned in shares, to the time when scores of vessels were owned by one man. There were periods when progress was less rapid than at others, and the horrible currency, to which the colonists clung with a fatal persistency, was a continual embarrassment; but, in spite of hard conditions, prosperity began soon and continued always. The remarkable thing about the currency was that there was apparently never a time when the colonies could not have supplied themselves with metallic money, or at least have maintained notes redeemable in coin. The natural laws of trade would have settled the matter for them if they had let them alone, and their privateers captured enough of the precious metals at one time and another to furnish a sufficiency for the limited requirements of the period. The errors of our forefathers have survived to plague their posterity, for as we look over the many lists of prices which Mr. Weeden submits, we are obliged to inquire in most cases as to the depreciation of the currency before we can form any judgment of their economic significance.

This intermeddling with freedom of exchange was only a part of the established policy of society. The scope of legislation was never broader. Whatever was suggested by religious feeling, prompted by superstition, recommended by propriety, or demanded by prejudice was enacted into law. Many of these laws, perhaps most of them, were futile, but this does not seem to have discouraged the ruling element, which kept steadily on with its minute regulation of conduct, as parents sometimes continue to dictate to children that have outgrown the age of obedience. This disposition to compel other people to do what we think they ought to do, was so general and so little controlled that it seems not improbable that the prevalence of socialistic theories in modern New England may be explained by it. The believers in protective theories of government can certainly claim that the history of the colonies affords an abundance of precedents, and may be pleased to find their dogmas laid down in language which can scarcely be improved upon. It must be said, however, that in those days there were truly "infant manufactures"; and where a body of proprietors held great tracts of unimproved land, they not unreasonably considered it for their interest to grant a lot to any one who would establish a needed trade. They followed the hoary Aryan village custom in so doing, but there were things at which they drew the line. Cambridge, about 1730, declined to pay a bounty of £50 to Joseph Hanford "to fit him out in the practice of physic."

Mr. Weeden cites some amusing instances of the Pharisaic morality naturally developed among the clergy by their despotic rule. One Col. Davis being about to join the church at Durham, N. H., the former pastor filed objections to his reception. The most aggravated offence was:

"his late wresting the Law of this Province in his partial Spite agst his own legal minister for so innocently playing at nine pins at a house noways license for a tavern, . . . besides his the s^{d} Jas. Davis being so desperately & notoriously wise in his own conceit, his pretending to have so much religious discourse in his mouth, and yet live so long (40 years) in hatred unto contempt of & stand neuter from our crucified Saviour."

A later incumbent of the same parish (which it is to be hoped was exceptionally unfortunate), having a case in court, providentially discovered that the "Patriarch Joseph (under the infallible Inspiration of the Holy Ghost) made it a law unto this day" that Pharaoh should receive the fifth part (Genesis xlvii., 26). But being convinced that several of the council are against him, he offers one-fifth of his prospective award to those who decide in his favor, and gives the Governor his bond to that effect, with a recommendation of prudent concealment. This was not to be regarded "as a bribe, but a just tribute for Equitable judgment as required by the Supreme Judge (Romans xiii., 4, 6)." Gov. Belcher, however, took the liberty of "communicating narratively" the proposition of the reverend suitor, with disastrous results to the latter in his parish relations. He was removed, but sends an indignant protest to the Governor against the construction of the bond as a bribe, which he abhors in giver or receiver. "Besides, if mistaken and misimprov'd as a bribe, I've supposed it my Duty, by my said Bond of security upon my Heirs and Executors, for an Antidote against any real Bribes intended or proffer'd by implacable enemies." What would not Dickens or Scott have done with such heroes as these! Is it, after all, true that the American novelist has had no materials to work with?

Equally edifying were the pious merchants who asked the divine blessing upon the vessels which they employed in the slave trade. This traffic, and, in fact, the whole life of the time, were redolent with rum. There was nothing equal to rum as barter for slaves. One Capt. Scott tried dry goods as a substitute, but, after a disastrous experience, he pathetically declares, "I have repented a hundred times the bying of them dry goods." Some attempts were made by enlightened men to render the traffic less hurtful, Capt. Potter laying down the precept: "Make y^{r} Cheaf Trade with the Blacks and Little or none with the white people if possible to be avoided. Worter y^{e} Rum as much as possible and sell as much by the short mesuer as you can."

Some of the most graphic passages in these volumes are those which describe the transportation of masts and even vessels from the inland to the shore by the use of hundreds of oxen. It even appears that solid rafts of timber were navigated across the Atlantic by the hardy sailors of two centuries ago. Mr. Weeden's citations are fuller upon the subject of commerce than any other, and give a clear idea of the wonderful activity displayed from a very early time. They make it appear that the colonists were practically in rebellion against the mother country almost from the first, there never having been more than the barest pretence of enforcing the navigation acts. The Revolution was brought on, not by any novel exertion of arbitrary power, but by the attempt to exercise powers which were legitimate enough, but which the negligence of England had allowed to fall into disuse. The revenue officers were simply not permitted to collect duties, and the greater part of the trade with foreign ports was illicit. Zealous officers fared ill, as popular feeling was wholly against them. One of them, starting to prevent the landing of a whole cargo of smuggled goods, was quarantined until the emergency was past; some pretended suspicion of smallpox being assigned for his detention. When Grenville took office, the whole revenue from customs in America was but £2,000, while the cost of collecting it was £8,000. So long as England was disposed to govern in this easy fashion, the colonies were loyal; but when an attempt was made to enforce the laws, it revealed the practical independence of America.

These pages would furnish ample evidence, if evidence had anything to do with settling the matter, that our manufacturers have never needed any assistance from Government. From the earliest times the colonies were practically independent of foreign products. Franklin told the Grenville Ministry that he did not know a single article imported into the Northern colonies but what they could either do without or make themselves. Some of the colonists would have missed their wines and their tea, and most of them would have missed their rum, but before the introduction of these cheerful products they may be said to have swum in cider. A single town produced 10,000 barrels. The manufacture of iron began as soon as the country was settled, and steadily increased. Spinning and weaving were universally practised, and in 1789 Washington visited a manufactory of wool-cards that turned out 63,000 pairs of such quality that they were smuggled into England. It is intrinsically highly improbable that a population so vigorous in mind and body, so strong in moral fibre, and so en-

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terprising in all directions, should not have been able to supply itself with all the necessaries and conveniences of life. Still, their advantages in the production of certain commodities were so great that only the absence of roads prevented a vast commerce. There were few carriages for nearly a hundred years after the first settlement, all travel being over bridle-paths and by ox-roads, and in 1670 it was ordained that all carts "within the necke of Bostone shall be & goe without shod wheeles."

It would be easy to ramble on in this way, but we must forego further reference to the many topics which we had marked for notice. Mr. Weeden deserves the thanks of all who are interested in the history of one of the most remarkable of human societies, for his work will prepare the way for the broader study of this history that is to come, and his volumes should be added to the library of every one who claims descent from New England ancestry.

Life of Dorothea Lynde Dix. By Francis Tiffany. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE name of Miss Dix was once a very familiar one in the households of charitable people; and now that, like most reformers whose fame lives only in the work they accomplished, she has become a portion of the past of philanthropy, in which individual distinction is less tenacious of life than in many other parts of human effort, this biography of her, which is also an ardent eulogy, is likely to serve its best end by reviving her memory as an example of how much a single life can accomplish. Mr. Tiffany tells mainly the story of her work. She appears to have cared little for any literary memorial, and to have left little which could be used for one. The letters, moreover, which have survived are not such as make the matter of biographies. Her interests were narrowly limited and her personality exceptionally single and undiversified. Her life was in fact her work, and the best we can know of her is her achievements. She was born of Massachusetts stock, suffered a childhood of privation, and was brought up, after her twelfth year, by her grandmother, a woman of rigidly Puritan convictions. A starved childhood was followed by a girlhood too directly put to the work, the care and responsibility of life; but out of these conditions came a character of strong will, high standards, and severe judgments, practical from the first, strenuous and unsparing, and, of course, with all this an enfeebled constitution. She had the good fortune to fall under Dr. Channing's influence and teach his children, and afterwards she laid by a competency as the fruits of a private school, which she maintained until she was worn out. A visit to England and a long period of invalidism there, during which she experienced the delights of a friendly home, followed. It was after her return from this journey that her attention was drawn to the condition of the insane in Massachusetts, which resulted in her devotion of her life to the effort to better the public provision for them.

It is not needful to rehearse the narrative, which Mr. Tiffany has condensed with judgment into an orderly account of how, beginning with Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Jersey, she extended her personal investigation and patient labor with the ruling powers over all the States of the Union this side of the Mississippi, and constantly gained some new and better asylums. Her success, due to her personal authority and tact, as well as to her being a woman was very great. She suffered only one real defeat, in the veto by President Pierce of the bill devoting 12,250,000 acres of public land to the benefit of the insane, and partly of the blind, deaf, and dumb; the proceeds to be apportioned among the States as a trust for these unfortunates. This was a great disappointment to her, and she seems to have held the President in detestation ever afterwards. She had already, however, established many asylums in all parts of the country, by legislative enactment and occasionally by private charity, and had extended her efforts to Canada. She now rested from her labors long enough to go to England, but had no sooner arrived there than she began those inquiries and that agitation by personal appeal to men in authority which resulted in the change of the lunacy law of Scotland. She continued her way through Europe, and, in the Channel Islands and in Rome particularly, effected important reforms, and went as far as Constantinople, only to find the asylum of the Turks one of the best she had seen, where she had "nothing to urge and little to suggest." She returned, after making a tour through some of the Russian and Austrian institutions in particular, and in fact visiting a large part of the Continent, only to bring her great experience to bear upon the still inadequate asylums of her own country. The war coming on, she at once offered her services as nurse, and was put in control of the department of nurses' work, in which she continued until the war was over; and for her reward she received, at her own suggestion, only the stand of colors which now hangs over the entrance to the Memorial Hall at Harvard. Her activity continued so long as her strength lasted and into old age, and she died, after prolonged illness, at the Trenton Asylum, in 1887, at the age of eighty-five years.

This is the barest summary of a life-work of extraordinary power in the individual and of incalculable benefit to the humane cause she had at heart. Her work was the awakening of the sense of public duty towards one of the most pitiable and neglected classes of the State, and, besides this, and in consequence of it, the introduction of an enlightened and responsible control of the patients. But she found time for other charities by the way, and the story of her obtaining the life-saving apparatus for Sable Island or of the rescue of the kidnapped Indians in New York shows the same sense of responsibility for unrelieved suffering and the same quickness and readiness in action. Her health seems never to have been so firm but that she might at any time have excused herself from effort, had she chosen to follow the standards of the ordinary world. She was without large means or social connections or any of the subsidiary aids to encourage or sustain her in her early efforts; but she possessed herself of the facts, made influential friends, directed the use of the public funds, and thus accomplished what would have seemed, even to a sanguine mind, a hopeless task.

Her character alone can explain such results. Her personal appeal appears to have been irresistible. Her courage was absolutely without fear. Her determination was unalterable. Self-devotion so complete is seldom witnessed, and she deserved her success. In the South she awakened almost a chivalrous feeling of respect in keeping with the Southern temperament. To all this must be added a practical sense of the necessity of action at once, and an utterly unpractical obtuseness to the reasons for not doing as she wished. One incident calls for special mention, in illustration of her character. It appears that it was she who went to President Felton of the Philadelphia and Baltimore Railroad and informed him of the plot to isolate and take Washington and to prevent the inauguration of Lincoln. In consequence of this information, he sent out detectives and obtained such information that he took the measures he did for the secret journey of Lincoln and for keeping communication open. Mr. Felton is the authority for the story, and he ascribes Miss Dix's knowledge of the intentions and preparation of the plotters to her acquaintance with Southern men and character. Miss Dix forbade him to make this public, but he records it, after her death, as due to her memory.

It would be unprofitable to examine too closely the faults in such a character as this. Mr. Tiffany dwells upon them sufficiently to explain the criticisms made upon Miss Dix as the head of the nurses in war-time, and those occasionally met with in her later years when she visited and criticised the asylums. They were the excess of strength, and no more need be said. In this part of the subject, as elsewhere, Mr. Tiffany has done his work as biographer with judgment, and he has brought to it an admiration of the character and labors of Miss Dix which makes his pages glow with feeling. A memorial such as this was much needed. It is the last and best token of remembrance and respect for a fair life that can be paid; and it is matter of congratulation that the work is thoroughly and well done.

The Antiquities of Tennessee: a Series of Historical and Ethnological Studies. By Gates P. Thruston. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. 369, with 17 plates and 246 illustrations in the text.

THIS book is the outcome of a series of investigations lately made into the stone-lined graves of Tennessee; and although the articles found do not differ materially from those previously discovered in this same region, yet the facts of this and the earlier explorations are brought together in such a compact shape, and the volume is, withal, so liberally illustrated, that it must be accorded a place among the most useful works that have appeared upon this subject. It contains, moreover, a good account, so far as it goes, of the origin and probable uses of all these various objects, and to this end a comparison is instituted between them and similar articles which have been found elsewhere. The early chroniclers, too, are called upon for aid, and are made to furnish a picture of the civilization of the recent Indians whenever it is supposed to throw any light upon the questions involved.

Throughout all this portion of his work our author is especially happy. His statement of facts is usually full and fair. So, also, is his use of the authorities, and if he had been content to stop here, or, rather, if he had not insisted upon carrying his conclusion further than the facts seem to justify, we should have had only words of commendation for the volume. As it is, however, he goes further than we are willing to follow; for although he admits (p. 16) that the mound-builder and the recent Indian "cannot be divided into two entirely distinct and separate races," yet, later on, he tells us, in substance, that a study of the implements and ornaments taken from these graves, to say nothing of certain carved shell and copper "gorgets" that were found in mounds at Sevierville, Tenn., and Etowah, Ga., indicates that the people who buried in these graves and mounds had reached a stage of development higher than that to which Indians like the Iroquois, Shawnee, and Cherokee had attained. This conclusion, it is need-

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less to say, we reject; and with all due deference, it seems to us that satisfactory reasons can be given for its rejection.

In the first place, granting that these gorgets, upon which great stress is laid, were the work of the so-called mound-builders, and admitting everything that can be reasonably claimed as to the superior artistic skill displayed in their manufacture, we deny that it furnishes the basis for a general inference as to the "state of society" or "degree of culture" (p. 351) of the people who made them. Unquestionably, it tells us how far these people had progressed in this particular direction, but to argue from this that they had made a corresponding advance along each and every other line of development is a step not warranted in fact or logic. That this is so will be evident to any one who will take the trouble to remember that the Navajos, who can hardly be said to be our equals in point of civilization, weave a blanket which, in some respects, is not surpassed by anything that we make.

But even if this were not the case, it would still be necessary to prove beyond the possibility of a doubt, that these carved gorgets, which, we are told (pp. 338–344–352, etc., etc.), "resemble" or "are suggestive of" Mexican art, were the work of the people among whose remains they were found. This is not done, and, indeed, the fact that the ornamentation upon them is said to be so far above the average of Indian work would seem to point the other way. That they were taken from the graves at the time and in the manner reported is admitted; but this no more proves that they were made by the people with whom they were buried than the discovery of a Winchester rifle in the grave of an Apache proves that the Indians made it. So far is it from doing anything of the sort, that the discovery in a grave of an article which in material or finish is outside of and above the usual run of such things, may be said to afford good grounds for suspecting its origin. The rule is invariable, and if we apply it in the present instance, it will, we think, furnish a clue to the seeming mystery. Take, for example, the articles from Etowah, which are, perhaps, as elaborately ornamented as any that have come down to us. The mound from which they were taken formed a part of the well-known group of earthworks at that place. It was opened under the auspices of the Bureau of Ethnology, and, according to Prof. Thomas, to whom we are indebted for an account of the exploration, it must have been thrown up after the time of De Soto. Indeed, if we read his report aright, these very gorgets furnish evidence of contact with the whites, and, curiously enough, he bases his opinion upon the study of the carvings with which they are ornamented.

In regard to the articles from Sevierville and elsewhere, about whose age nothing definite is known, but which "bear a certain resemblance to the bas-reliefs of Mexico and Central America," and are supposed by our author to be above the capacity of the historic tribes of the Mississippi Valley, we can only say that, in view of the testimony of the mounds themselves, there is no reason why they may not have been brought from Mexico or some one of the Pueblo villages. Ornaments made of shells from the Gulf have been found as far north as Minnesota, and knives and arrowheads of obsidian, which must have come from the Rocky Mountains or Mexico, have repeatedly been taken from graves and mounds in the eastern half of the Mississippi Valley. Occurrences like these (pp. 83, 84, and 355) are conclusive as to the existence of intercourse between widely separated regions, and hence there is nothing impossible or even improbable in the suggestion we have made as to the origin of these articles. On the contrary, it is a simple and satisfactory explanation of the fact; and, what is quite as much to the point, it fits in closely with all that we know of the arts and industries, manners and customs of the Indians who held all this region when first it became known to the whites. Upon this point it is unnecessary to enlarge, and we content ourselves with the remark that until it can be shown that, at some period in the past, there lived here a people, other than the Indians, who chipped flints, manufactured pots, worked in shell and copper, buried in stone graves, and carried on more or less traffic with their neighbors and others, it is a waste of time to go any further in search of the mound-builders.

Organic Evolution, as the Result of the Inheritance of Acquired Characters according to the Laws of Growth. By G. H. Theodor Eimer. Translated by J. T. Cunningham. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 435.

MUCH as they differ in regard to methods of evolution, most believers in the unity of organized nature, to whom all the manifestations of life are a connected whole, are inclined to accept the idea of spontaneous generation as a logical outcome of their belief. At once on leaving the lowest forms of life, however, the apparent agreement disappears, and the number of phylogenies approaches that of the students. Each worthy investigator rears a genealogical tree and traces its branches from his own point of view. The book in hand contains one of the most original and vigorous of evolutionary interpretations. It has been built up by studies of things in their general aspects, in their relations to other things, by methods similar to those of Darwin, but leading to very different conclusions. The character of the latter, and the manner and depth of the search for causes, may be set forth in the outlines of a few of the more striking.

Prof. Eimer maintains that the primary elements in the production of variety, in the origin of species, are the physical and chemical changes in the organisms due to environment—light, darkness, heat, cold, dryness, moisture, food, etc.—the effects of which become hereditary. The changes are all included in his definition of *growth*. Excluding the morbid and the accidental, organic growth is defined as every physiological change of structure naturally produced in an organism by external influences or constitutional causes, and which is permanent or precedes a further modification. The two things necessary for the production of growth are the given composition of the organism and the action of stimuli—for instance, of food. Following the way pointed out by Lamarck, the causes of variation are found in functional activity and external conditions. The evolution and continuous modification of organisms takes a perfectly definite direction, which in every detail is determined by the material composition (constitution) of the body. Adaptations originate through the inheritance of acquired characters; utility, being a relative conception, cannot be a fundamental cause, as things must exist before they can be useful. There is no adaptation in inability to live without nourishment, in being devoured, or in death itself occurring when the greatest amount of experience and skill has been reached.

Everything in evolution is due to natural processes, to material physical causes. Hunger or death is conditioned by the substance of the body, and the latter by the circulation between organic and inorganic nature. Reproduction is unending growth. Germ cells, like the protozoa, are practically immortal; they retain a general completeness of matter that in part is lost by the body cells, which consequently are unable to prevent exhaustion and death. Greater power of recrescence obtains in the lower beings because in them each cell more nearly possesses the power to reproduce the whole organization. Protoplasm has the property of being altered and transformed by the action of external stimuli, both those which act directly and those which affect the functions, thus acting indirectly. "Stimuli in fixed directions and constantly repeated produced, but only secondarily, fixed paths of conduction, and responses of a quite different kind (reflexes). Thus arose nerves and finally apparatus for storing up stimuli, arose sensation and will—as acquired and inherited faculties."

In reflex action lies the beginning of the evolution of all mental faculties. The lower forms no doubt depend on it exclusively: they act at once from each stimulus; in the higher forms stimuli are stored for later use, in reflecting and drawing conclusions. The organ of spontaneous action, the brain, is but an apparatus for storing up faculties and experiences that have either been acquired and transmitted by ancestors or acquired by its possessor. Instinct is the result of inherited automatic actions; it is inherited faculty, inherited habit; it is the power of habitually acting without reflection so as to attain a given object in response to internal stimuli that may or may not be connected with external; it is the purposeful endeavor to satisfy an impulse, the latter being merely the urgent desire to get rid of an unsatisfactory condition of the body, to remove an unpleasant feeling. The will is "the result of a number of factors, which are partly hereditary and material, partly directly or indirectly derived from the outer world. Involuntary and voluntary action do not differ essentially, but only in so far that the latter presupposes an accumulation, a storing-up, of impressions in a common organ (the brain), and the possibility of an interaction of these. The will, therefore, can never be free. The erroneous idea of its freedom depends in each particular case on the neglect of factors of which it is always the slave." Consciousness is "the sensation of the condition, as affected by the outer world, of the brain at a given moment." Irritability is a fundamental property of protoplasm; from it are evolved, by acquisition and inheritance, the irritability of nerves in animals and the power of sensation and will.

The factors by which organs and faculties have, according to Prof. Eimer, been engendered and developed are sufficiently indicated in the foregoing abstract. It is patent that the opinions will find greatest favor with such as accept some form of Lamarckian teachings. The utilitarian principle is recognized, but is given a secondary place; and selection, though adopted, is evidently, as with warmer advocates, something of a dumping-ground for guesses and suppositions at second hand, not yet subjected to critical examination. It is likely that too much is ascribed to selection, as also to competition. For if the agents cited by the author exert the influence claimed, which is not questioned, it must be felt by all the individuals subjected to it, and the tendency to vary in accord with its demand will thus be induced and established in spite of any struggle that does not sweep them all away; the

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effect of pammixis being only to average the advance by retarding in the offspring of the most precocious, or hastening in that of the least susceptible and sluggish. The author rightly asserts that competition is not at all formative, but adds that through extermination of intermediates it makes the lines more distinct. The destruction of intermediates on any such scale as is generally supposed is extremely doubtful. The inception and progress of a variation are commonly so very gradual that the animal appears at all times adapted to its situation; it is the sudden change, the accident of life, for which it is unprepared. A struggle between individuals severe enough to select, as usually postulated, would prove fatal to the young and the burdened females and thus to the species itself. By compelling migration, competition may indirectly cause a line to originate.

There are a number of minor points to which exceptions may be taken, though in the main the author's position is of the soundest and best supported. He states that moisture and elevation promote dark coloring directly. The real cause would seem to be in the quality of the light reaching the object; in this way we can account for similar phenomena under water. The chemical or photographic effects of light are brought forward in the ingenious explanation of stripes and spots in the markings of animals; in origin the first are connected with the period of monocotyledonous plants casting linear shadows, the second with the later polycotyledons which cast spotted shadows. Color details, markings, etc., are attributed to physiological causes, as by Dr. Hagen on insects. Seasonal dimorphism, in Vanessa, Pieris, Papilio, and other Lepidoptera, is caused by heat and cold; sexual dimorphism by physical differences of the sexes. Voice of males and like sexual characters are said to be due to sexual selection; why not also to physical differences?

Among slips of pen or thought we may note the following: On page 7, the 'Law of Migration' is given to A. Wagner, instead of Moriz Wagner; on page 278, the statement, "For the only possible explanation," etc., is followed in the next sentence but one by "Another explanation which might be given is," etc.; and on page 431 we find, "Accordingly there is nothing fortuitous, but everything in evolution, to the smallest detail, is governed by laws. Chance only selects to a certain degree."

As a whole, we can hardly praise this work too highly; it is a model of conciseness and clearness of statement; it is to a very great extent founded on actual researches by the author, and is filled with results of his own observation and experiment. The doctrine of material physical causes for each effect encourages healthy research; there is no disposition to skip about over all creation in a search for adaptations. The concluding sentence contains an entire creed: "Our duty is work; our right is free investigation; our satisfaction, the establishment of a grain of truth for the benefit of mankind; our hope—knowledge."

The Pacific Coast Scenic Tour: From Southern California to Alaska; the Canadian Pacific Railway; Yellowstone Park, and the Grand Cañon. By Henry T. Finck. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

WITH a part of the contents of this handsome volume, as with the author's name in more than one branch of book-making, our readers are already familiar. Mr. Finck's occasional letters to this journal are here revised and supplemented, with the result indicated in the sub-title—a continuous report of the journey northward from the Mexican border to Sitka; of the Canadian Pacific route eastward to Lake Superior; of the Yellowstone Park, and the Colorado Cañon. In point of readableness and interest this narrative leaves nothing to be desired. It is very far from being a padded account of personal adventure. Mr. Finck is a close and many-sided observer, and if he never omits a mountain worth looking at, or the characteristic flora of the landscape, or the color charm of flower or lake, he is, on the other hand, prodigal of information concerning local industries and products, climatic conditions for husbandman and invalid, neglected opportunities for enterprise, social conditions, and the like. In these practical particulars, as well as in his remarks upon the scenery, he has been aided not only by early residence on the coast, in Oregon, but by wide European travel, which furnishes the basis of many useful comparisons. Though enthusiastic over the combination of Italy (or Spain) and Switzerland which our Coast States present, Mr. Finck does not overlook the struggle for existence with the forces of nature under the most favored skies, and his picture of things as they are may safely be commended as trustworthy to native and foreign readers—and the book should have many foreign readers. It is surprising to find so much detail conveyed in so compact and agreeable a form.

A vein of pleasantry pervades Mr. Finck's style, as where he says (p. 30): "Many residents in our Eastern and Middle States have often wondered what has become of the spring, which used to form one of our seasons. It has followed the general tide of immigration, has gone West, and may now be found in riotous exuberance along the coast and the foot-hills of California." One's cheerfulness is also assisted by the author's positiveness of expression in matters like the tyranny of prohibition or the stupidity of hotel-keepers or railway-managers or park-keepers. His descriptions are clear, often graphic, and show a marked sensibility to and knowledge of flowers, and a great love of mountains, as manifested in his chapters on the magnificent solitary peaks of California, Oregon, and Washington, and the Alaskan coast range. We must confine ourselves to a single specimen. Speaking of Lake Tahoe and its gorgeous reflections, he continues (p. 139):

"Its own varied and ever-changing surface-colors are equally enchanting, though more sombre and melancholy. There are several zones of color. The shore is lined with sand, coarse as bird-shot and clear as the water itself; and for a distance of several hundred yards this sand is visible as we row into the lake, corrugated by the waves like the tiny furrows in the palms of our hands, and giving the water a yellowish tint. Further in, it becomes blue, gradually shading into so deep a hue that we are ready to believe that a ship with a cargo of indigo must have gone down here, and feel tempted to dip a pen into it to see if it will do to write with; but dip up a glassful, and it is as clear and colorless as if it had just spouted from an artesian well, and as cold. . . .

"Cloud shadows climbing up a mountain height are a fascinating sight, but not to be compared with the spectacle of the irregular patches of color that are chased by the wind across the crests of the Tahoe wavelets, like semi-liquid purple, green, and violet mists, vanishing in the distance into air, and followed by other color-waves in rapid succession. . . . Looking leewards, the water nearest the shore appeared gray, bordered by a light violet, with yellowish and purple patches; then came a deep green streak, followed by a broader indigo band, and finally a deep violet field, bounded by a faint mist raised a little above the water and slightly veiling the mountains. Every morning the details were new."

It remains to add that there are twenty exceptionally good full-page process plates, many of them fresh of subject, like the stupendous setting of the Canadian Pacific Hotel at Banff, the snow-seamed sides of Devil's Head Lake, and the Selkirk glacier. On page 158, "northward" should obviously be read for "southward."

A Pocket Handbook of Biography, containing more than 10,000 names of Celebrities, showing their nationality, rank or condition, profession or occupation, the dates of their birth and death. Compiled by H. F. Reddall. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1890.

WE give Mr. Reddall's title nearly *in extenso*, and we will further give him the benefit of a reading-notice by quoting his prefatory note entire:

"In the following concise 'Dictionary of Biography,' particular attention has been paid to the orthography and the matter of dates, the best and most recent authorities having been consulted. A doubtful or approximate date is followed by an interrogation point. The contraction 'fl.' stands for 'flourished'—that is, lived. Nicknames, pennames, etc., also designations of kinship, are printed in italics following the real name. The words in brackets denote some work, as a book or an invention, produced by the personage, or some famous episode in his history. The Handbook will be found especially rich in names of living celebrities."

The idea of a biographical dictionary to contain the 10,000 (more or less) names about which readers and writers are most likely to require information, the description, etc., being limited to a single line, was a happy one, and has several times been realized. Fame, however, is not only fleeting, but capricious, so that in a work dealing, in great part, with contemporaries, a considerable proportion of those entitled to a place among the 10,000 of 1880 would have to give place, in 1890, to others about whom public curiosity may be equally short-lived. This consideration, however, does not seem to have weighed with Mr. Reddall so much as the advantage of having the information needed in a handy shape. He does not mention the biographical dictionary which forms a supplement to the "Unabridged" Webster, but he must, we think, have been annoyed by the inconvenience necessary in consulting the final pages of that immense quarto, and have thought that there might be a market for the same material in another form.

The Webster "Dictionary," "containing nearly 10,000 names of noteworthy persons, with their nationality, their station, their profession or occupation, and the dates of their birth and death," was compiled by Mr. L. J. Campbell in 1879, on the plan described in Mr. Reddall's preface. The work was well done, especially with reference to contemporaries, and the only fault to be found with Mr. Reddall's reissue of it is, that the revision made necessary by lapse of time is so incomplete. Thus, under Z, Mr. Campbell gives fifty-eight names; Mr. Reddall the same names, described in identical language (except for the occasional omission of a word or a misspelling), arranged in the same order, and with only one addition, viz., Zalinski. It is strange that if he made a practice of pencilling additions on the margin of Webster, it should not have occurred to him to insert Zola as well as Zalinski. Other omissions we have noticed are Alfonso XIII., Amiel, A. J. Balfour, E. Bellamy, W. Besant, Phillips Brooks, Bryce, Cairoli, Caprivi, Benj. R. and Geo. T. Curtis, Daudet, Elizabeth of Rumania, Ferdinand of Bulgaria, Chief-Justice Fuller, Lord Hartington, Humbert of Italy, Ibsen, Lassalle, Louis II. of Ba-

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varia, Milan of Servia, John Morley, Oscar II., Ohnet, T. B. Reed, Rudolf of Austria, Scheffel, W. H. Smith, Tisza, Waldersee, and William II. Men who were alive in 1879 are, with some exceptions, alive still, so far as Mr. Reddall is aware. We give in parentheses a few of the omitted dates. C. F. Adams (1886), Countess Agoult (1876), W. H. Ainsworth (1882), Asbjörnsen (1885), C. Ashburner (1889), Audiffret (1878), Auerbach (1882), Augier (1881), Aurelle de Paladines (1877), Auzoux (1880), Beust (1886), G. Borrow (1881), E. Burritt (1879), Lord Cairns (1885), H. C. Carey (1879), J. Esten Cooke (1886), R. H. Dana (1882), C. Darwin (1882), R. W. Emerson (1882), Fazy (1878), Fechter (1879), W. E. Forster (1886), Countess Guiccioli (1873), Hackländer (1877), Hayne (1886), Gen. Hooker (1879), G. P. Marsh (1882), Marx (1883), Dinah (Muloch) Craik (1887), Theophilus Parsons (1882), J. G. Saxe (1887), Lord Stanhope (1875), etc., etc.

Space fails to mention the errors of commission in Mr. Reddall's addenda. The late Emperor Frederic, for instance, is entered twice, once as "Frederic William Nicholas Charles (Frederick III.), Emperor of Germany, 1831," with nothing to indicate his death. Prince Frederic-Carl, also (died 1885), appears not only to be alive, but to be styled "Prince of Prussia"—a title borne only by the heir presumptive. The sovereign of Rumania is still "prince"; L. P. Morton is only an "Am. banker," "Luise Mühlbach" is treated as a real name, Lord Wolseley is still merely a baronet, etc. In conclusion we may say that the revision of Mr. Campbell's dictionary by himself, in the 'Webster' of 1890, is far better than that by Mr. Reddall.

Five Years with the Congo Cannibals. By Herbert Ward, in collaboration with D. D. Bidwell. Illustrated from drawings by the author. Robert Bonner's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. 308.

THIS book has a special interest from the fact that the author was a member of the Rear Guard of Mr. Stanley's expedition for the relief of Emin Pasha. It is not, however, a defence of the actions of the leaders of that ill-fated body, the only reference to the controversy being in the preface. This contains a brief summary of the principal facts, and closes with the simple remark that, in 'Darkest Africa,' Mr. Stanley "takes much too harsh a view of a portion of his expedition that endured great hardships while doing their best"; in which opinion, so far as our knowledge goes, we heartily concur. Mr. Ward makes several other references to Mr. Stanley in the course of his book, all of which, it should be added, show the highest appreciation of his great abilities, without the slightest trace of bitterness. This fact makes a favorable impression upon the reader which the book, as a whole, in no wise diminishes. In his dealings with the natives Mr. Ward seems to have shown the tact, patience, and courage which characterize all successful travellers among savages. An evidence of their regard for him is the name, "Eagle's Wing," which they gave him in admiration of his exploits as a pedestrian. His book is not a continuous narrative, but a series of sketches of the various river tribes between Stanley Falls and the sea, and of personal adventure. They are, in the main, well told, and give a good idea of the habits and appearance of the natives, as well as of the life of an officer of the Free State. What this organization has accomplished in civilizing and developing the vast territory under its nominal control Mr. Ward, possibly intentionally, does not intimate. If any inference can be drawn from his accounts, it would be unfavorable, on the whole, to the prospects of the new State under its present management. Cannibalism appears still to be prevalent on the upper river, though it is a singular fact that part of a tribe will be avowed eaters of human flesh, while another part, living close to it, will indignantly deny the practice. On the other hand, the Bolobo, who, of all the races in this part of Africa, are the most cruel and take the keenest delight in the sacrifice of human life, are not cannibals.

"Very often," says Mr. Ward, "on these occasions [the settlement of a quarrel] a slave is purchased; the bones of his arms and legs are broken; he is carried to some open, well-known spot, generally a cross-road; a hole is dug, and he is placed in it, the earth being filled in and well trodden down around him, so as to leave his head just above the surface. Any person found giving him either food or water is liable to be served in the same way, and so he is left to die a lingering, painful death."

A tribe living on one of the great northern tributaries of the Congo has a peculiar method of hair-dressing: "They completely shave the head, and then allow the hair to grow all over for three or four weeks, after which they shave designs, such as half moons, stars, squares, and parallel lines. When the hair grows too long for the design to be visible, the whole scalp is again shaved, and some different pattern adopted." All of the tribes of the upper river are distinguished from each other by the scarring of their skins with various patterns. The Bangala tribal mark, for instance, "consists of a series of horizontal cross-cuts half an inch in length, extending down the centre of the forehead from the hair to between the eyes, with a smaller patch of diagonal cuts upon the temples."

Mr. Ward gives a rather favorable account of the famous Hamed bin Mohammed, or Tippo Tib, a name "bestowed upon him by the natives of the districts he first entered to wage war; his many guns, with their quickly recurring discharges, sounding in the ears of the affrighted natives like 'tip u tip, tip u tip,' as the marauders blazed away through the plantations of their villages." This is not, however, Livingstone's interpretation, which is "the gatherer together of wealth." The most interesting chapters are those describing the author's two canoe journeys down the river, with their ever present dangers from the sudden storms, the hippopotami, and the hostile negroes. The district which these inhabited was of several hundred miles in extent, and each village warned the next lower of his approach by sounding horns and drums. War canoes shot out to intercept his progress at every turn, both by day and night, but he succeeded in some way in evading them all, apparently without firing a shot. Mr. Ward is evidently not a naturalist, though he is something of a hunter, so that he gives little information in regard to the fauna and flora of the Congo. Elephants, according to his accounts, still seem to be numerous on parts of the river. The engineers who surveyed a route for the railway to Stanley Pool frequently came upon them, in one instance upon a herd numbering fifty-five.

Many of the pictures, of which there is a large number, mostly from Mr. Ward's drawings, are admirable. Especially good, among those representing native types, is that of the leader of Manyema marauders on page 206.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. The Poet's Year. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $6.
Allen, Elizabeth A. Gold Nails to Hang Memories On. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Arnold, Matthew. Poetical Works. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Ashby, N. B. The Riddle of the Sphinx. Des Moines: Industrial Publication Co.
Atlas of the Metropolitan District and Adjacent Country. New York: Julius Bien & Co.
Babcock, W. H. The Two Lost Centuries of Britain. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Ball, W. P. Are the Effects of Use and Disuse Inherited? Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bandelier, A. F. The Delight Makers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Barr, Amelia E. Friend Olivia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Barrett, F. Between Life and Death. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Beddoes, T. L. Poetical Works. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Blyth, A. W. A Manual of Public Health. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Bolton, Sarah K. Famous English Authors of the Nineteenth Century. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Book of the Game Laws of the United States and Canada. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Browne, Maggie. Wanted—A King. London: Cassell & Co.
Bruce, H. Life of General Oglethorpe. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in the Great Northwest. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Cartier, A. La République Américaine: États-Unis. 4 vols. Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.
Clark, Susie C. A Look Upward. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Compayré, G. The Elements of Psychology. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Colton, A. M. The Old Meeting-House. Worthington Co.
Cox, Palmer. Another Brownie Book. The Century Co
Daudet, A. Kings in Exile. George Routledge & Sons.
Daudet, A. Port Tarascon. Harper & Bros.
Dickens, C. The Christmas Carol. Brentano's. $5.
Dock, Lavinia L. Text-book of Materia Medica for Nurses. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Drake, S. A. The Taking of Louisburg. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Elderton, W. A. Maps and Map Drawing. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Elson, L. C. The Theory of Music. Boston: New England Conservatory of Music.
Epistolæ Ho-Elianæ. The Familiar Letters of James Howell. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Farrar, F. W. The Minor Prophets. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Farrington, Margaret Vere. Fra Lippo Lippi. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Fester, R. Rousseau und die deutsche Geschichtsphilosophie. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen
Finley, Martha. Elsie Yachting with the Raymonds. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Francis, L. H. Through Thick and Thin. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Gautier, L. Chivalry. George Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Gitterman, J. M. Ezzelin von Romano. Part I. Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer.
Gladden, W. Santa Claus on a Lark, and Other Christmas Stories. The Century Co.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield in the Corresponding Style of Phonography. Isaac Pitman & Sons.
Goss, W. L. Recollections of a Private. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Gunther, A. C. Miss Nobody of Nowhere. The Home Publishing Co.
Harrison, J. A Manual of the Typewriter. London: Isaac Pitman & Sons.
Headlam, W. Fifty Poems of Meleager. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Hendrick, W. A Brief History of the Empire State. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Hermetic Philosophy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Hervieu, P. Flirt. Worthington Co.
Ibsen, H. The Prose Dramas. Vol. II. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army. Vol. XI. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Isham, A. B., Davidson, H. M., and Furness, H. B. Prisoners of War and Military Prisons. Cincinnati: Lyman & Cushing. $3.50.
Jastrow, J. The Time-Relations of Mental Phenomena. N. D. C. Hodges.
Jefferson, Joseph. Autobiography. The Century Co.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in Great Britain and Ireland. Harper & Bros.
Kraszewski, J. I. The Jew. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Latimer, L. H. Incandescent Electric Lighting. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies, and Practice, at Law, in Equity, and under the Codes. Vol. VII. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Lecky, W. E. H. A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. Vols. VII., VIII. D. Appleton & Co. $2.25.
Lindsay, T. B. The Satires of Juvenal. American Book Co.
Little Ones' Annual. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Lockwood, H. C. Constitutional History of France. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $2.50.
Longfellow, H. W. The Song of Hiawatha. Illustrated by Frederic Remington. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
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O'Donnell, Jessie F. Love-Poems of Three Centuries. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Ouida, Ruffino. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Our Little Men and Women. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.75.
Pitman, I. A Manual of Phonography. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.
Proctor, Edna Dean. A Russian Journey. New ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Prost, J. C. A. Histoire d'un Livre. Paris.
Putnam, G. P. Tabular Views of Universal History. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Richards, Laura E. In My Nursery. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
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St. Aubyn, A., and Wheeler, W. *A Fellow of Trinity.* Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Stebbins, Sarah Bridges. Galgano's Wooing. G. W. Dillingham.
Stephen, L., and Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXIV. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
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Thoreau, H. D. Anti-Slavery and Reform Papers. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Tytler, Sarah. A Houseful of Girls. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Walker, Lula M. Dreams of the Sea. Illustrated. Estes & Lauriat.
Ward, H. Five Years with the Congo Cannibals. New York: Robert Bonner's Sons. $3.
Weber, G. Allgemeine Weltgeschichte. Vol. XV., Part II. Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann.

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